

JOURNAL

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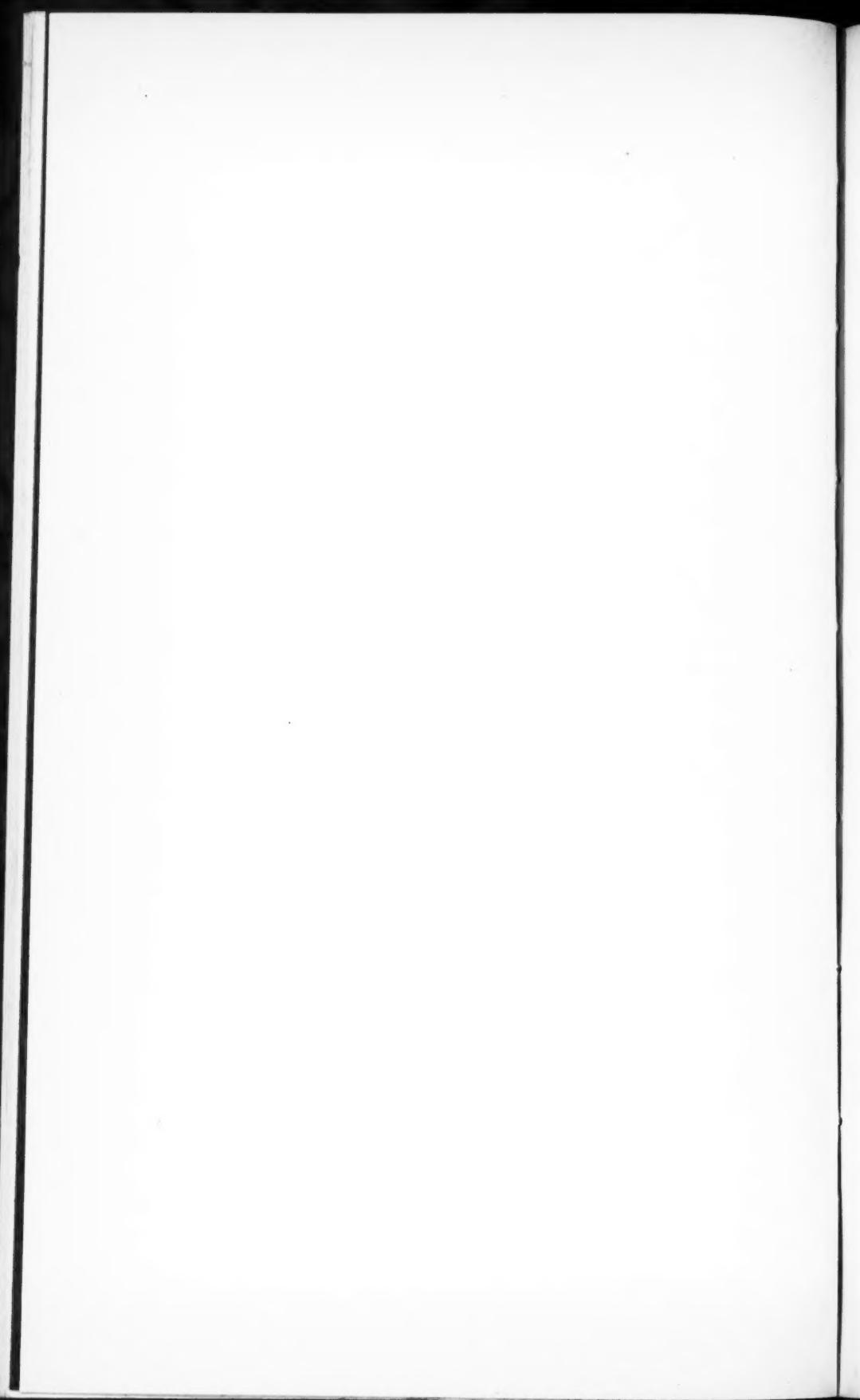
AMERICAN ASSOCIATION
of COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS



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The Frontispiece to this number is from a lithograph by Grant Wood. It is reprinted, by permission, from Dean Epler's book, mentioned below.

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The article on the Navy V-12 Program was prepared by an officer in the Bureau of Naval Personnel. In accordance with Navy custom, it is published without signature.

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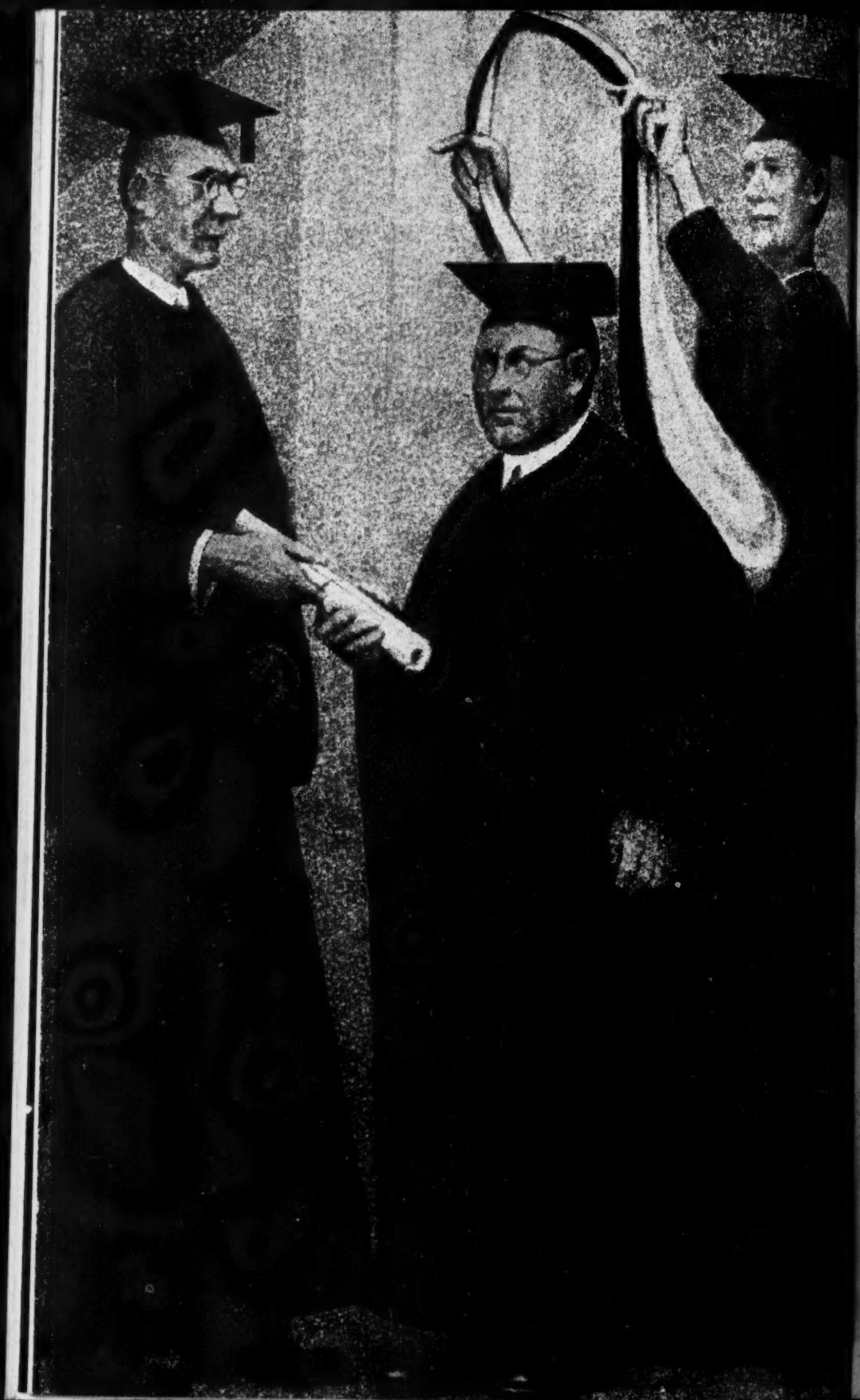
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JOURNAL

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AMERICAN ASSOCIATION *of* COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

The Navy V-12 Program

THE NAVY V-12 Program is now an integral part of the operations of 240 American colleges, universities, medical schools, and dental schools. V-12 students in the uniform of apprentice seamen are studying as undergraduates in 131 colleges and universities, and 40 of these institutions have additional groups in the uniform of Marine privates. Naval uniforms are also in evidence at every approved medical school and accredited dental school in the United States.

The 77,000 students now in college under the V-12 Program came from a variety of sources—from more than 1,000 secondary schools, from more than 900 colleges and universities, from 109 medical and dental schools, from the fleet, from shore establishments. All of them are officer candidates for the U. S. Naval Reserve, the U. S. Marine Corps Reserve, or the U. S. Coast Guard Reserve. They have the status of apprentice seamen in the Navy or of privates in the Marine Corps while completing their studies in uniform with pay. While under instruction they pay no tuition and are furnished food, housing, and medical service.

THE PURPOSE OF THE PROGRAM

Rear Admiral Randall Jacobs, Chief of the Bureau of Naval Personnel, struck the keynote of the V-12 Program in an address at Columbia University last May. "This is a *college* program," he declared. "Its primary purpose is to give prospective naval officers the benefits of college education in those areas most needed by the Navy. We desire, insofar as possible, to preserve the normal pattern of college life. We hope that the colleges will give regular academic credit for all or most of the Navy courses, and we desire that college

faculties enforce all necessary regulations to keep academic standards high.

"We are contracting not merely for classroom, dormitory, and mess-hall space and for a stipulated amount of instruction, but for the highest teaching skill, the best judgment, and the soundest administration of which the colleges are capable. We desire our students to have the benefits of faculty counseling, of extracurricular activities—in short, the best undergraduate education the colleges can offer."

As suggested by Admiral Jacobs, the Navy has placed a heavy responsibility on participating colleges, on the general principle that educational procedures should be administered by educators. Although the Navy prescribes the length of time each student may remain in college, it does not attempt to evaluate transcripts of college records and determine where a student should be placed academically in a college to which he may be transferred. Similarly, the Navy asks the proper authorities at each institution to indicate at intervals those students who should be dropped from college. The Commanding Officer of each V-12 Unit is instructed to separate such students from the V-12 Program; he may also separate other students who, though not considered hopelessly unfit by the college, are, in his opinion, not qualified to complete the necessary courses with success.

College faculties select the textbooks for all academic courses, whether or not such courses are prescribed by the Navy. They continue their own grading systems, their systems of penalties (such as probation) for partial academic failure. They also enforce their own regulations for student participation in athletics. The Navy specifies only that V-12 students shall not take part in intercollegiate athletics while first-term freshmen and that participation shall not be permitted when it interferes with success in academic work or with the performance of Naval duties. It considers that trips of more than 48 hours away from the campus when the college is in session automatically constitute such interference and therefore does not permit V-12 students to make such trips.

NAVY V-12 CURRICULA

So far as curricula are concerned, the Navy V-12 Program is complicated by the fact that the students now enlisted in it came into the Navy, Marine Corps, and Coast Guard in many different ways. Some were students in the Naval R.O.T.C.; others were enrolled in Class V-1 or V-7 of the U. S. Naval Reserve or held commissions as En-

signs H-V(P); still others were enrolled in the Marine Corps Reserve, Class III(d) or in the Coast Guard Reserve; and large groups have come into the Program direct from civilian life and from enlisted personnel of the Navy, Marine Corps, and Coast Guard in active service at sea or at shore establishments.

To several of these groups, the Navy had made more or less definite commitments. Students in the N.R.O.T.C. had been promised commissions as Ensigns in the Naval Reserve or as second lieutenants in the Marine Corps Reserve on successful completion of specified courses in Naval Science and Tactics along with an approved undergraduate academic course leading to a baccalaureate degree. Students in V-1 and V-7 had likewise been promised that they might pursue their own academic majors, provided they included a few specified courses. Ensigns H-V(P) had been commissioned for the definite purpose of permitting them to complete the requirements for professional degrees in medicine or dentistry. It was not considered fair, or even desirable, to force all these students into a series of rigidly prescribed curricula when they enlisted in Class V-12. On the other hand, it was believed that new students entering the V-12 Program as freshmen could be trained for their duties more rapidly and effectively if they were required to take fully prescribed curricula which would qualify them, in the shortest possible time, for active duty as officers of the types needed by the Navy: deck, aviation, engineer, engineer specialist, supply corps, chaplain corps, aerology specialist, physics major, medical corps, dental corps, Marine Corps, and Coast Guard.

The result is that there are, in general, two different types of students now in the V-12 Program: the *regulars*, who entered college as freshmen and are following prescribed curricula, and the *irregulars*, who entered the Program with advanced standing and are, in general, following curricula which include both courses in major fields of study in which they were previously interested and courses designed to meet minimum academic requirements for successful accomplishment in Reserve Midshipmen's Schools, Supply Corps Schools, medical schools, dental schools, theological seminaries, and Officer Candidate Schools of the Marine Corps.

The progress of a *regular* student through the fully-prescribed curricula follows a clear-cut pattern. Coming into the V-12 Program as a freshman, he follows one of two groups of freshman courses—that for pre-medical students or that for engineering and basic stu-

dents. Pre-medical students continue for five 16-week terms, after which they are assigned to medical and dental schools, if acceptable to the committees of deans organized in the continental Naval Districts. Those who are not acceptable, or for whom no billets are available in medical and dental schools, are, if qualified, sent to Reserve Midshipmen's Schools for further training as deck officers. Other freshmen, whether tentatively classified as engineering or basic, are screened during their second term to discover special aptitudes. At the end of the second term, they are assigned, in numbers determined by the needs of the Navy, to upper-level specialties, after a certain quota of volunteers has been transferred to Class V-5 for further training in aviation.

The upper-level specialties include deck candidates (two additional terms), N.R.O.T.C. (five additional terms), engineer candidates for general service (four additional terms), engineering specialists, physics majors, and aerology specialists (six additional terms), supply corps candidates (four additional terms), and Marine Corps line officer candidates (two additional terms).

Students selected at any stage of their education in the V-12 Program for training as chaplains are permitted to take a special series of courses as undergraduates and then to complete their work for professional theological degrees in seminaries of their own denominations.

Medical and dental students are commissioned on completion of their professional studies; N.R.O.T.C. students are commissioned on leaving the V-12 Program; Supply Corps candidates go from the V-12 Program into special Supply Corps schools; Marine Corps candidates go from the V-12 Program into the Marine Corps Reserve for further training as officer candidates; all other students, with a few exceptions, go from the V-12 Program into Reserve Midshipmen's Schools for an intensive 16-week course before receiving commissions.

The progress of undergraduate *irregulars*—former V-1 and V-7 students, Class III(d) Marines, and others who enter the V-12 Program with advanced standing, is determined on a somewhat different basis. The governing factor for most students is the number of terms (approximately 16 weeks in length) each spends in college—any college. Additional terms in the V-12 Program are allocated according to the number of terms the student had completed before entering the Program. Bona fide engineers and physics majors are given enough additional terms to bring the total to eight. Pre-medical

and pre-dental students are allowed the number of terms (provided the total is no more than eight) needed to fulfill admission requirements to medical or dental school in the shortest possible time. Students selected for training to qualify them for deck, supply, or Marine Corps general duty are permitted to complete additional terms as follows:

Those who had, on entering
the V-12 Program, completed

Will receive
additional

7	1
6	1
5	2
4	2
3	3
2	3
1	4

Minimal academic requirements for all these groups were established more than a year ago, and are set forth in detail in Navy V-12 Bulletin No. 101, which has been widely distributed in the colleges.

ACADEMIC CREDIT

It is to be noted that the Navy does not require an academic degree for any classification of officer except medical, dental, and chaplain. The Navy recognized that the acquisition of degrees by other types of students is desirable for the students, but it does not consider degrees essential to competent performance of the naval duties for which these officer candidates are being trained. Hence, when conflicts arise, as they sometimes do, between the necessity to complete the Navy's minimal academic requirements and the desire to fulfill the requirements for a baccalaureate degree, the former always takes precedence.

The college with a V-12 Unit thus has a double relationship with every V-12 student: (1) as an officer candidate for the Navy, and (2) as a student of the college. Some confusion has resulted, especially with regard to academic credit, because the two relationships have sometimes not been clearly separated. For example, if a student has had four terms of academic work in physical education at one college and is transferred to another college which does not grant academic credit for physical education, the student immediately has a dual status. In the eyes of the Navy, he has completed four terms of academic work and is therefore entitled to remain, if a deck candi-

date, two more terms under the V-12 Program. This rule holds even if, during those last two terms, his entire academic course consists of freshman courses in mathematics, physics, and other required subjects. In the eyes of the college to which he was transferred, he may present no acceptable credits and may be classified as a freshman. That is a matter which involves the relationship between the college and the student, and is of no concern to the Navy.

The Navy is concerned, however, that each student, when transferred from one college to another, shall be enrolled in courses for which his previous academic work has adequately prepared him. It is not desired, for example, that every engineering student who has had four terms at one institution before being transferred to another shall be placed in junior courses, regardless of the kind and quality of his previous academic work. Colleges are expected to follow their usual practice in such cases and place the students in courses for which they are qualified. It is recognized that many engineering students will complete eight terms in the V-12 Program without securing academic degrees. The Navy is content that they shall have eight terms of continuous, intelligently planned instruction in engineering.

Just as the practice of offering or refusing academic credit for certain courses varies from college to college, the amount of academic credit varies for a given quantity of academic work. In one institution, a course requiring nine hours of actual work per week (class hours, laboratories, and outside study) may carry three hours of academic credit; in another college, the same course, or one requiring an equal amount of actual time, may carry only two. This problem is of concern to the Navy, since the Navy requires that all V-12 students be enrolled for at least 17 hours of academic work each term. If, in some institutions, students must devote 70 hours or more each week to secure 17 credit hours, whereas they might secure the same amount of credit for 50 hours of work somewhere else, obvious difficulties arise. In the former colleges the students will have insufficient time for sleep and recreation in addition to their academic and naval duties. The Navy has therefore taken the position that for the purpose of computing academic loads under the V-12 Program (regardless of the amount of academic credit actually granted by the college), an academic hour equals three hours of actual work, including outside preparation as well as time spent in classrooms and laboratories. A 17-hour academic load, therefore, means an actual work load of 51 hours per week. Colleges are requested by the Navy not to register

students for courses requiring a total of less than 50 or more than 60 actual work hours per week.

This problem emphasizes again the dual relationship between the college and the student. The Navy is concerned that the student have the opportunity for a well-balanced program of education, recreation, and military duties. The amount of academic credit which the college grants the student for this work is a matter between the college and the student.

The above discussion relates particularly to students who have entered or will hereafter enter the V-12 Program with advanced standing and do not take fully-prescribed V-12 curricula. Students whose academic work lies wholly within the V-12 curricula are to be advanced in accordance with their records in the fully-prescribed courses, no matter where such courses are taken. In other words, a student who successfully completes the work of the first two terms in one institution and is transferred to another institution by the Navy is to be enrolled for the appropriate courses prescribed for the third term. If adjustments become necessary, the Commanding Officers of V-12 Units, on recommendation of the faculties involved, may change the status of students from *regular* to *irregular* so that those inadequately prepared for upper-level courses through no fault of their own may continue in the Program. It is hoped, however, that the number of such cases will be small.

PHYSICAL TRAINING

The purpose of the prescribed physical training program for V-12 students is to help them reach and maintain a high level of physical fitness so that they may better carry on their academic and naval duties while in college and later may be prepared to perform the arduous tasks required of naval officers. The program calls for $9\frac{1}{2}$ hours of physical training during the students' first term in the V-12 Program and for $8\frac{1}{2}$ hours per week in subsequent terms. Medical, dental, and theological students pursuing advanced courses in professional schools are not, however, required to participate in the physical training program.

Continuous phases of the program include twenty minutes of early morning calisthenics each day and one hour of military drill each week. The other hours are taken up with daily muster and inspection and with conditioning and maintenance activities. No period of physical training is permitted to last longer than one hour. The hour

of physical activities is to include the time required for marching and hiking to and from the place of activity, dressing, showering, etc.; that is, a student should be able to have an academic class before and another after the physical training period without cutting into the time of either.

All students except first term freshmen are permitted to participate in intercollegiate athletics as a substitute for conditioning or maintenance activity if they desire to do so and if the Commanding Officer certifies that such participation does not interfere with their academic success or with their naval duties. As members of intercollegiate teams such students represent the college, not the Navy, and are subject to all the colleges' usual regulations concerning eligibility.

Instructions have gone forward both to naval personnel and to civilians responsible for physical training that adjustments and modifications may be made in view of the preliminary physical condition of the trainees and of local conditions at the various units. Physical training is viewed as a long-term program to be administered moderately at first and accelerated as the men improve physically. Effects of exposure to the weather are considered in planning the training to be given in different sections of the country during the various seasons of the year.

DISCIPLINE

The original intention of the Navy was that only such disciplinary measures should be adopted as would make certain that V-12 trainees did not reflect discredit on the naval service. In the light of experience during the first term, however, it became desirable to increase the authority of Commanding Officers so that they might institute compulsory study hours, restrict liberty and leave, and take such other actions as might be necessary to assure trainees sufficient sleep and adequate opportunities for study. It also became evident that security watches were necessary for fire protection and for the safety of government property. Watch standing has, therefore, been authorized except during times when trainees would normally be attending a regularly scheduled academic class or laboratory.

SOCIAL, RECREATIONAL, AND RELIGIOUS ACTIVITIES

Navy V-12 Units have not in general been provided with the allowances for setting up recreational facilities usually made available to all newly commissioned naval activities, because many of the colleges in which units have been established have adequate recreational facilities, and the enlisted men in the V-12 Program are so closely asso-

ciated with civilian students that it is unnecessary to establish facilities solely for their use. On some campuses, however, it has been found necessary to furnish funds for supplementary recreational activities either by direct appropriation or by the establishment of a modified Ship's Service Agency from which the net profit is transferred to a special welfare fund.

In colleges having compulsory fees for extra-curricular activities, Navy students may not be compelled to pay such fees. Commanding Officers have been instructed, however, to use all proper methods to see that students join Student Unions on campuses where they exist and that they are also encouraged to become affiliated with other activities which in the judgment of the Commanding Officer are beneficial in their effects on the achievement of the Navy V-12 Program's objectives.

Religious observance of Navy students is encouraged. Students have the privilege of attending religious services of their own faiths, and such services are conducted, as in the past, by clergymen connected with the college and with local churches. Commanding Officers have been instructed to secure and distribute information concerning available religious services and when necessary to modify or make exceptions to general disciplinary regulations in order that students may attend such services. Navy students may not, however, be compelled to attend college chapel exercises of a religious character even though such a regulation may exist for civilian students.

AN OPPORTUNITY FOR YOUNG MEN

Through the Navy V-12 Program, young Americans with a high school education have the opportunity to fit themselves to become officers in the Navy, Marine Corps, and Coast Guard. Men selected from civilian life must be between their 17th and 20th birthdays; those from the fleet and from shore stations must be between their 17th and 23rd birthdays. All must be morally and physically qualified and must pass rigid screening tests.

This is a long-term program, geared to future needs of the Navy. The Navy is depending on it to provide a continuous flow of officers with adequate training to perform necessary duties afloat and ashore as the fleet increases in size. The V-12 Program will accomplish its mission if it continues to select young men thoroughly qualified as potential officers and to educate and train them so that they may make the most effective use of their special abilities in the service of their country.

The Happy Ending

PHILIP H. PARRISH

ONE MORNING in April, 1941, I was going to the office in the blackest mood I had known since the beginning of the war. I felt then, as I still feel, that the chances of the Allies were at their lowest point. I do not know whether you remember clearly the exact situation at the time, but in North Africa, after the initial successes of Wavell's armies, the Germans had surged back across Libya and even for a distance into Egypt. In Europe they had browbeaten Rumania and Bulgaria into submission; had disposed of Jugoslavia with a few days of campaigning; and now were storming down through Greece. That particular morning they had passed Thermopylae; Athens was under their bombers. If they chose to press their advantage in North Africa and in the meantime either skirted Turkey or trampled over her, I could see nothing to prevent their overrunning all of Africa and Southern Asia. As matters turned out, Hitler elected to remove Russia from his flank, and that probably was his error of errors. But this diversion, on the morning of which I am speaking, was in the future. The prospect at the moment was for a bloody purging of the Mediterranean area, to be followed by a fanning-out movement over Africa and Southern Asia.

I stopped across the street from my office for a cup of coffee and a moment's rest to order my thoughts. A professional man—an acquaintance—occupied the next stool, reading his paper. Presently he indicated the unfavorable headlines and demanded: "*When* are they going to be stopped?" I told him I really didn't know, and went on my way. Probably I should have thought no more about it except that in front of the elevator another acquaintance bore down on me and spoke the identical words: "*When* are they going to be stopped?" Anyhow, my temperature went up fifty degrees, and I replied, "When somebody stops them." Then I went upstairs, and into a frankly somber editorial on the war situation threw a paragraph to the effect that the American people were so conditioned by faith in the Happy Ending that they were incapable of measuring the forces of war. They were convinced that the virtuous hero always wins the girl, especially if the hero is a virtuous American. And having got rid of that, I felt better and was ready to forget the matter. But I have never been able to.

First came a surprising number of letters on that particular paragraph. Then I discovered a public speaker using it; I found a couple of professors making it the subject of classroom discussion out at one of the colleges. I said, "Good heavens, have I written something significant?" and began studying it myself.

I scanned the letters we had published during the war; I re-examined, in the light of this particular thought, the divisions in American opinion, the rise and fall of popular moods, the elections, and the manner in which the American public had received individual pieces of news. And out of it came a conviction that it isn't enough to scold the public for not seeing things as they are. Our history, our literature, our art—the very buildings in which we work, the very cars in which we ride (for the time being), the very tubs in which we bathe, have united to make our minds resistant to the realities. We think of ourselves as the favored ones of destiny. We do not see armies, navies, oceans, and mountain chains as they are. We see them as characters in a drama or as part of the backdrop for such a drama—a drama that is being worked out, through some inner compulsion, as we believe, to a fortunate finale for America. We bend every event, every item on the face of the earth, to the purposes of this drama.

Put it this way: The totalitarian states—Germany, Italy, Japan—have forcibly closed the minds of their people to "verboten" influences and have inculcated religion-like nationalism. Their peoples, or at least large percentages of them, are made to view life as a season in which every sacrifice is praiseworthy, with the object of sacrifice always the state and the state's ruler. Philip Gibbs, in his "European Journey," told of a seventeen-year-old German youth who actually prayed for the boon of dying with a French bullet in his heart. . . . Isn't it possible that, not by superimposed force but by a natural gathering of influences, a more or less closed mind has been achieved among our own people also? Not a mind closed to decency, as is that of our adversaries, but a mind closed to the true picture of things—to essential reality.

As a matter of fact, this was the conclusion at which I unwillingly arrived—that through a historical development we have arrived at a state of mind, or had so arrived when the shooting started, under which the identification of things-as-they-are is most difficult.

So, as early as the late spring of 1941, I began making addresses in various cities in my part of the country on this particular question. The last time I mentioned the subject was the night of December 6.

when I talked to the Young Republican Clubs of Oregon at the city of Eugene. The next afternoon, as I was sitting in the lounge car of a train that was taking me home to Portland and talking to a friend about this specific matter, the radio blared the news of the Japanese attack upon Pearl Harbor. And instantly the underlying meaning of that attack was apparent. It meant that America's carefree faith in the happy outcome for all things American was being put to the test on the stage of world politics—was being put to the test by the strongest and most ruthless forces that those desiring our overthrow could bring against us.

Today I am humbly grateful for the opportunity to bring to this national audience my thoughts concerning our country's ideology, just when, as I see it, the enemy is striving to employ that ideology to our own undoing. I see the answer not only in painfully rapid readjustment under the hard impact of war but in the slower readjustment of education. It is education that must work the final correction. And it is with this thought that I present the matter to you—a group so powerful in education—for whatever it may be worth.

First, I would deny that there is a confusion of identity between the happy-ending complex and simple optimism—simple hope, the will to live. The rabbit entering the farmer's field for carrots is quite confident he will return; the cave man locked in struggle with the dinosaur never gave up optimism; neither does the prizefighter facing Joe Louis. These are evidences of the simple hopefulness—the life urge—that is ingrained in human nature. After all, why shouldn't we who dwell upon the earth, from amoeba to President, be hopeful? We are the creatures who are still sentient—the sons and daughters of creatures who at least lived long enough to procreate. We have the heritage of optimism. Those who have reason for pessimism, though they be infinitely greater in number, cannot express it, because they consummated their pessimism by dying. They are no longer with us.

Everybody and everything living has hope. The equivalent of the story of Pandora's box is to be found in the folklore of all peoples. But careless assumption of the happy ending for the virtuous is peculiar to the white race, and it has reached its highest development in America.

European civilization is also Christian civilization, and Christianity teaches that virtue will be rewarded. You and I, I think, have faith in that teaching. We have faith that right will triumph. But Holy Writ takes the long view of things. God has said that right will

triumph finally, but the Bible is stern and realistic concerning day-by-day events. It does set forth an underlying principle of ultimate hope upon which the people of the Western European civilizations have builded their romantic conception. But it has never told you or me that we can walk with impunity on ice so thin that a heretic will fall through it.

This being a group of educators, it is almost unnecessary to point out that after Christianity, with this underlying faith, had spread over Europe, a series of events began which changed this stern optimism of Christianity into something almost unrecognizable. Europe began to prosper, to expand, to conquer. It had many successes and few failures. It produced scholasticism, and after that science. Presently the map of the world began to unfold. Europeans discovered and appropriated the western hemisphere. They circumnavigated and criss-crossed the globe, and they established sovereignty over the colored races. At home the scientists were making magic in the laboratories, and out of their experiments emerged systems of production that have enabled the earth to support at least four times as many people as it did a very short time ago. Such constant and spectacular material success, continuing without abatement over a period of centuries, implanted very deeply in the European mind the idea of "progress." It is hard for any of the world's peoples to look either behind the conditions to which they are born or ahead of them. Men tend to view the conditions to which they were born as eternal. In European civilization, progress has been so splendid for so long that progress seems the normal thing.

And if this has been true of European civilization as a whole, how much more deeply it is true of the western branch—of the peoples who occupied the continent of America and here constructed their farms and market places on a scale that was a magnificent exaggeration of anything the old world could achieve.

Here on the new continent our works have been such as to make failure seem incredible. We have never lost a war, or even come close to losing one, in spite of always giving the other fellow a head start. Our buildings and factories and mass production methods, and even our scenery, put the cramped old world to shame. We like to say that Germany, with eighty million people, is about the size of California. That Japan, with seventy million, is about the size of Montana. That Britain, with forty-four million, is no larger than Oregon. Our size, our accomplishments, and our isolation have combined to make us by far the most buoyant branch of an optimistic race. If European civiliza-

tion is convinced of the normalcy of progress, we are convinced of it with a capital N and a capital P.

Nor is even that the whole story. We have called in art. In keeping with the West-European frame of mind, an Englishman, Samuel Richardson, wrote the book *Pamela*. It was published in 1740 and is generally considered to have been the first novel. It was a book that followed the now well-known pattern of virtue inevitably making a monkey of evil. Since then that story pattern has come to fill our art, our literature, our drama, and latterly those very vital mediums of mass education, the radio and the motion picture drama. A Frenchman made a study of what he called the thirty-two basic dramatic situations. For practical purposes our popular entertainers use only one of the thirty-two—boy meets girl, and villain is done in. Even in "Tobacco Road," the "gal" does get away to Atlanta.

Thus we have a people inclined as a result of their history to be overconfident of uninterrupted progress; a people who have surrounded themselves with cultural influences certain to deepen this confidence and to exclude the real hazards of life here on earth.

Compare, by way of illustration, the folklore of the peoples of the earth with the literature on our modern American news stands. Compare the folklore of the old West or of the Ozark mountains or of the North Woods with the tales told in the movies or in the soap operas on the radio. Better still, go back to Aesop once in a while. I like to do that as a cure for sugar-on-the-brain. In Aesop we are soon reminded of the part played by cunning, strength, and passion. Read the story of the Good Fawn, beloved of all the deer in the forest, who became so ill she had to lie down; and of how all her admirers crowded round and nuzzled her, with the result that the grass became trampled, and the fawn, being unable to move, died of starvation. That is not a pretty story. But it was not intended entirely as a pretty story by the parents who made it up and told it to their children, far back in the ages, even though those parents may have loved their children as much as we do ours. They had in mind instruction as well as entertainment. They felt it necessary for their children, facing life, to know that kindness can be as fatal as evil purpose. This and many other lessons have been allowed to drop from our books.

And I imagine that by this time some of you are inquiring exactly what it is I propose? Do I desire a reversal of the trend of modern education? That trend has been toward the exclusion of unpleasantness. Do I want to turn back?

In certain measure, I suppose that actually is what it amounts to.

Children have plastic minds, and it is possible to train them, as they are trained in Germany, Italy, and Japan, under a state plan, into a brutal militarism. Or they can be trained as they are in America, by a casual accumulation of forces and influences—an accumulation of forces that in our case, as I have tried to show, has taken a dangerous direction. Or there can be any variation of either of these two systems.

And while it is unnecessary to tell this group how unprejudiced the child-mind is at the beginning and how responsive it is to the educative process, I cannot forbear mention of the case of my own daughter. I recall very clearly the day I first told her the story of Little Red Riding Hood. It was in that period when the theory was abroad that our children were getting off to a bad start as a consequence of the cruelty and bloodiness of the old fairy stories. I was at the point where the wolf was about to eat Grandmother when I remembered this. I hesitated and tried to manage some pleasant variation of the tale. But my daughter was impatient and demanded: "What happened then, Daddy; did the wolf eat Grandma?" I said, "Yes, Pam; the wolf ate Grandma." Whereupon my daughter looked at me with large eyes and asked: "Was she good?"

But what about now, when my daughter has reached the mature age of twelve and has read many books, heard many radio programs, and seen many movies? Does she still maintain that impersonal attitude toward a wolf masticating a grandmother? Indeed, no. Nowadays wolves must gnaw only upon the proper persons. She has acquired the traditions of her race, along with all the rest of us, and has come to consider the inevitable happy ending as normal. She is a younger version of my secretary—a pert and poised and worldly-wise young woman, I assure you—who, when I dictated the story of the fawn that was killed by kindness, interrupted to say, "I hate that story!"

And if there are those who are offended by the idea of reversing, to a certain degree, this process of American education, I can only reply that I also am offended—offended by my own conclusions. Most of us here are parents of children or know other children that we dearly love. It is no easy matter to come to the realization that we cannot think only of making their young years pleasant. It is no easy matter really to get down to the fact that we must prepare them for a harder world than we had thought, since our sons are quite likely to live the life of the battlefield and the bivouac and our daughters to be the wives of soldiers.

I can only recite certain facts, explicable only as evidences of mass

delusion, and invite your just judgment concerning the cause and the correction.

In August, 1939, the most numerous, the wealthiest, and the most warlike people of Europe, the Germans, were prepared for war. They had been fashioning their juggernaut for six years, living under martial law and submitting to the absolute command of a man who preached the philosophy of force. On most of their borders they faced small states which, from the mathematical standpoint, had absolutely no chance of survival except by resorting to joint action. Yet each seemed oblivious to its situation. William Shirer, in his *Berlin Diary*, tells of a Polish colonel who, on the evening before hostilities, was ready for wagers that the Polish horsemen would ride down Germany's seventy-ton tanks. And so it went, all the way around the German border. Each state in turn had conducted itself in the years past with the idea that somehow there would be a happy ending. One would think that they would have seen it as a matter of simple arithmetic to figure out that at that late date their only chance of escape was in co-operation. But they could not see, and each in turn fell. And do you recall that tragic day when the Germans were pouring toward Paris, and Reynaud was reduced to the expedient of crying for a miracle? That cry itself was based upon national tradition. The Maid of Orleans had saved France once. Surely she would return in some new guise! But all around the circuit of Europe, 1940's developments failed to follow the pattern of the story book or the pattern of previous history.

And if Europe lived in a delusion, what of us, watching from across the Atlantic? We were equally guilty—even more so. In accordance with our belief that the better of two characters would inevitably triumph over the worser, the majority of American people were confident that the Polish colonel was right about the cavalry and the tanks. America even urged on the participants, not because Americans had weighed the opposing forces and were confident that the proper side would prevail, but because we *assumed* that the proper side would prevail.

I have good reason to remember when, in the spring after Poland, the Nazis made their attack on Norway. I wrote positively but regretfully on the editorial page that they would succeed. It seemed so manifest a thing, with the Germans hurtling their great war machine against a sparse country of three million population and the British unable to give help except across the North Sea. The Germans had the

shallow Skaggerat mined, and closed also by an umbrella of airplanes. They could use their thousands of aircraft for a ferry service. But a great many of our people were nothing less than furious. It was the only occasion on which *The Oregonian's* circulation manager has taken exception to our editorials. And that was not because of circulation, but because he personally, as a four-year veteran, just couldn't think it possible.

The truth is that our people would not look at the realities; they looked at the virtues.

The same story was repeated, still more tragically, a year later, when Germany decided to mop up southeastern Europe, and stood facing Yugoslavia, with its unmechanized army and its twelve million people, and Greece with a pitiful five million people already holding off the full power of Italy. Once more America was utterly incapable of seeing the inequality. It saw this as a battle that might resolve for the right.

But note the American reaction a comparatively few days later when Hitler, instead of pursuing the southeastward course, elected to turn upon Russia. Russia was greater in manpower even than Germany, and Russia had been preparing for this war ever since the establishment of communism. Yet our people, who had carried in their minds a picture of Yugoslavia and Greece fighting Germany to a standstill, now were quite certain that Russia would be disposed of in a matter of two or three weeks. There is no explanation for this—absolutely no explanation—except that in this instance villain was pitted against villain. Most people long had considered the Soviet Union to be the bigger rogue of the two and thought that, being a rogue, it should properly suffer the appropriate fate. But once more—and on second thought we are deeply grateful for the fact—the course of events has failed to follow the outline that we had assumed it would follow.

Now, to bring the record up to date, why do you suppose our people repeated, until it became a household phrase throughout the United States, that our navy could shoot the Japs out of the Pacific Ocean in two or three weeks? Why did we tell stories of Japanese ships turning turtle and of the Japanese building imported skyscrapers upside down? Was there anything in the record to justify it? The plain fact is that their navy entered this war ahead of ours in modernity and not far behind ours in tonnage. And in the Russo-Japanese conflict their ships decidedly did not turn turtle. We have

every reason to look upon them as a dangerous adversary. Did we realize this? No! Instead, our fighting forces at Pearl Harbor were caught in a scornful mood that cannot be explained in any other way than as a product of our mass delusion.

But do not misunderstand. If my unwillingly-arrived-at thesis stands up under your examination, that still does not mean that we should be at all disheartened. Quite the contrary. There is far more reason for confidence than alarm in the situation; for if the human mind is so constituted that a free people, such as the American people, can be caught in "a pattern of thought" as a result of the accidents of their development, what must be the state of those peoples who have been subjected to merciless control?

The answer is manifest: The younger generations of Germany, along with some of the older, and all the generations of Japan, are wholly incapable of weighing the world's forces—wholly disqualified from conceiving what it means to engage the United States in battle.

On the day of Japan's attack upon Pearl Harbor and the western islands, I was reminded of Billy Rose's story of the man who wanted a job. This man came up, and Billy Rose asked him what he could do. He said he could jump off a platform 500 feet into a barrel of sawdust. Rose said that sounded pretty good; to go ahead and do it. So the man jumped off a platform 500 feet into a barrel of sawdust. Rose said that was fine. "I'll give you \$250 a week." "No," said the man. "I'll give you \$500 a week." No; he wouldn't take that. "I'll give you \$1,000." No; he wouldn't take that. "What's the matter with you?" Rose demanded. "Well," said the man, "I never did that before and I don't like that trick."

Now, patently, anyone who jumps 500 feet into a barrel of sawdust—particularly without practice—must have been so conditioned mentally that he was unable to estimate the meaning of 500 feet. Or he was so conditioned that he confused himself with a cranberry, which, I understand, can descend quite a way without bursting.

And that is exactly what has happened with the people of Japan. They have undertaken a feat that is beyond them, first preparing themselves by a long process of self-delusion.

No one doubts the fanatical devotion of the Japanese to their emperor-cult; or the rigor of the training to which their soldiers and sailors have been subjected; or the infinite care with which the blue-prints for this war have been worked out. (A physician observed to me the other day that the Japanese were by far his most "satisfactory"

patients. If a diet were given to one of them, it was followed with meticulous care. If medicine were to be taken every so often, it was taken on the second. Once he found a patient who was still on spinach soup six months after leaving the hospital, because the order had never been countermanded.) But knowing all this, and appreciating the infinite care that lies behind Japan's initial success, we also appreciate that a people so horribly submissive to authority could be molded by absolute and unscrupulous authority into a state of mind in which they would be as innocent as babes concerning the dangers and consequences of their acts. And that is exactly what has taken place.

Can the Japanese see themselves as they are—an immature, feudal people who through imitation have armed themselves with the weapons of our modern technology? Can they judge the poverty of their resources compared to our own, even if they overrun all eastern Asia? Can they see that their only chance was in the first impact of the attack our complacency invited? Can they see that if they should win in company with Germany, Germany would destroy them at once? Can they see that for this one mad foray, in which they are doomed to defeat no matter how the battle rages, they have given over their opportunity for peaceful growth into maturity and into that power which their energy had indicated for them?

No; they are quite as nonchalantly confident as the gentleman who took a dive for Mr. Rose.

But—someone may say—Germany is not a feudal country, nor are the Germans blind to America's resources and the fighting qualities of our people. They have undertaken to make war. What are their delusions?

Well, I will tell you what their underlying delusion is, and its end is going to be a bad shock for them. They suffer under the misconception that they can engage America in an all-out war, forcing upon us all the horrors that such a war requires, and yet have the America of yesterday at the peace table. They believe that if worst comes to worst and they are beaten, there will be another Wilson from the New World to bring about another Versailles treaty, against which they can again go up and down the continents crying out in accusation. For many centuries it was England, never fully enlisted in the European wars, that modified the peace terms of the mainland. Latterly, and particularly in the first world war, it was the United States that filled this role. But today our manpower is in uniform; our industry has been reorganized to fit this manpower with every weapon of death. And if

it takes years to conclude this struggle, with our substance wasted and our hearts hardened by the loss of millions of our people, will there then be a Wilson in the Hall of Mirrors?

No; Germany and Italy saw their neighbors weak. The people of those countries submitted themselves to totalitarian control as a preparation for the attack with its prospect of booty. Unlike Japan, which has never tasted defeat, they have tasted it often, and their experience is that it is something that can be survived. Both are wrong—Japan in her delusion that she cannot be vanquished; Germany in her deluded faith that no defeat will ever be final.

Now I have rather pictured this war as a conflict of delusions—a confusion of them, so to speak. If accused of that, I should have to plead guilty. I think that we were kept from preparing by the romantic assumption, based upon our history and our art, that the happy ending was ours by right of nature. Now that we are in the war, the same assumption still hampers us. We need to tear the colored glasses from our eyes. We need to see the peoples of the world, not as characters in a drama put on for our benefit, but as they are. We need to see the oceans and the lands, not as backdrops for our drama, but as elements in a problem that must be worked out.

And when we have done that, how fortunate we shall be beside our enemies! *We do* have manpower, the fighting heart, the resources, and the capacity to produce. *They*, when they lose their illusions, as they must in the end, will be disconsolate indeed.

A man who has lived over much of the earth, and also among the Japanese, was at my house the other night. "They (the Japanese) simply haven't got it," he said. "If you were to burn down one of their houses, even a large one, you would not get enough metal to make a rifle. But if we were to burn down this house"—and he waved his arm around—"there would be metal for a seventy-ton tank."

That reality exists throughout all the field of production. And to that fact, you and I and all Americans append this thought: that if it becomes necessary to burn down our houses to secure the steel and lead with which to defend our liberties, then we will do it. We are taking off the colored glasses and re-educating ourselves to see the world plain. And formal education itself should join in making it certain that we never again lose that power.

America's Honorary Degrees

S. E. EPLER

HONORARY degrees reflect the trends of the time. Our own military leaders and officials of friendly foreign governments received a large share of the honorary awards in 1943. Admiral Nimitz was given the degree of Doctor of Laws by the University of California. Admiral Leahy received the LL.D. from Wisconsin. Major General Strong and Secretary Knox were awarded LL.D.'s by Northwestern.

Princeton gave no honorary degrees at the 1943 commencement but earlier in the year Ambassador Grew and Ambassador Winant were recipients of honorary degrees. Mr. Grew also had the honor of receiving the only honorary degree given at the Harvard commencement.

Heads of foreign governments were popular recipients during the 1942-43 year at Columbia University. King George of Greece, President Arrozo del Rio of Brazil, Prime Minister Mackenzie King of Canada, and President Peñaranda of Bolivia were awarded LL.D.'s.

Fewer honorary degrees were given in 1943 than usual. The University of Chicago, Notre Dame and many other universities made no awards.

The honorary degree system is almost as old as higher education. The honorary Doctor of Sacred Theology degree which Harvard College conferred in 1692 on her President, Increase Mather, was probably the first honorary degree ever awarded by a college in Colonial America. Harvard's entire faculty (there were only two) also received honorary Bachelor degrees at the same time. Yale's first honorary doctorate was an honorary M.D. given *in absentia* to Daniel Turner, an Englishman, as a token of appreciation for a gift of books with an estimated value of sixteen pounds. One wit of that day said M.D. stood for "Multum Donavit" (he gave much).

The Doctor of Medicine degree flourished as an honorary degree in many of the leading American colleges in the years preceding the Civil War. Many of these honorary M.D.'s were given to older physicians who had learned by the apprenticeship method and desired degrees to keep up with their younger rivals from the medical schools. The American Medical Association founded in 1846 was instrumental in taking the M.D. out of the honorary category.

George Washington received Harvard's second LL.D. in 1776. Her first honorary LL.D. was granted in 1773 to John Winthrop, an astronomer and professor at Harvard. During the Revolution, Harvard honored other patriots including General Gates and the boy General Lafayette. Baron Von Steuben is said to have warned his men that on approaching Cambridge they should ride through the town like the Devil because if they caught you they would make you a doctor.

The Presidents have been popular as recipients of honorary degrees. The first fifteen Presidents received a total of 36 honorary doctorates. However, Roosevelt's total of over 30 and Hoover's awards which exceed fifty make the honorary degrees collected by their illustrious predecessors seem meager in comparison. Ex-President John Q. Adams, himself a holder of an LL.D. from Harvard, strenuously opposed a similar award to his rival, President Andrew Jackson. Adams made the following comments in his diary:

June 18 (1833). Called from my nursery and garden by a visit from Mr. Quincy, President of Harvard University. . . .

He told me also that as President Jackson is about visiting Boston the Corporation of the college had thought it necessary to invite him to visit the college; that he [Mr. Quincy] should address him in a Latin discourse, and confer upon him the degree of Doctor of Laws; and he intimated that I should receive an invitation to be present at these ceremonies.

I said that the personal relations in which President Jackson had chosen to place himself with me were such that I could hold no intercourse of a friendly character with him. . . . And independent of that, as myself an affectionate child of our Alma Mater, I would not be present to witness her disgrace in conferring her highest literary honors upon a barbarian who could not write a sentence of grammar and could hardly spell his own name. . . . I adhered to my determination to stay home.¹

Harvard did make the award to Jackson but, according to an unverified story, he surprised the Harvard men by responding to the Latin discourse with the Latin motto "*E pluribus unum*", which considering the secession sentiment that existed was not without significance.

The clergy have received the lion's share of honorary degrees down to the present. However, this proportion has declined considerably in

¹ *The Diary of John Quincy Adams, 1794-1843*, p. 493 ff. (Allan Nevins, Editor.)

the past fifty years. Most of the correspondence of the Columbia Board of Trustees relating to honorary degrees for the period before 1840 concerned the clergy. Many of these letters were written by friends of the candidates to the president of the college or to the chairman of the honorary degree committee. Typical of these is a letter from Mr. James R. Lawrence, a trustee of Hamilton College, who was able to secure an honorary degree from Columbia for his friend, Reverend J. W. Adams. The use of the Governor's name as a reference may have aided the cause. His letter to President Duer follows:

Syracuse, N.Y.
Sept 2d, 1840

My Dr Sir:

My acquaintance with you induces me to address you upon a subject in which I feel a lively interest.

The station you occupy at the head of Columbia College renders it peculiarly proper that I should consult you and solicit your influence.

Rev^d. John Watson Adams of this place has long been distinguished as a scholar, a gentleman and a most distinguished Divine. He is now about 45 years of age, has been the fitted clergyman over the first Presbyterian Church in this place since the year 1826—during that period he has had frequent calls to settle in other places—amongst others at New Haven (Con.) [sic] and Brooklyn in this State. He must be well and favorably known to most of the clergy in New York. The friends of Mr. Adams here, of whom I am one, are desirous that he should receive the honorary degree of D.D. We know of no man more deserving.

I am one of the trustees of Hamilton College. I could have easily obtained that honor for him there—but his friends thought it would be more acceptable to him to come from a college at a greater distance—and should it come from yr [sic] institution (he being a Presbyterian) it would be still more gratifying I have no doubt—as yr Commencement is near at hand, I beg leave through you to present this subject to the authorities of yr ancient institution. May I ask you to favor me with an answer at your convenience?

With great Respect I am
Dr Sr, yr obt St.
(Signed) James R. Lawrence

Wm. A. Duer, LL.D., N. York

P.S. Gov. Seward is well acquainted with Mr. Adams—to him I refer if need be.²

²Columbiana Collection. Original letter, 1840. (MS.)

The kinds of honorary degrees given have been changing continually. The D.D. and LL.D. have been the most stable. Some, like the M.D. and Ph.D., have been honorary until the organized efforts of those who had earned the degree in course forced a suspension. In-course Ph.D.'s came with the founding of graduate schools after the Civil War. Yale granted in-course Ph.D.'s in the early 1860's. Colleges soon began giving honorary doctor of philosophy degrees. Honorary Ph.D.'s were not confined to less-known institutions. Princeton, Yale, Dartmouth and New York University all conferred honorary Ph.D.'s.

In the 1870's more honorary Ph.D.'s than in-course ones were awarded, but by 1890 the trend was reversed. One of the first professional groups to go on record as opposed to honorary Ph.D.'s was the American Philological Association which passed in 1881 a resolution to this effect.

Yale's President, T. D. Woolsey, in a magazine article in 1884 in the *Century Magazine*³ severely criticized honorary Ph.D.'s. In 1889 in a speech before the National Education Association Charles F. Smith documented his blasts against the practice with figures and names of offending institutions. Smith also listed incidents of abuses in honorary degrees:

There are competent witnesses still living who could testify in the case of the man who in consideration of a donation of \$10,000 to a certain college, now happily defunct, was to receive a doctorate in theology. The college performed its part, but the donation was not made. If that gentleman had only known of the institution which is said to have conferred a D.D. on the generous donor of a Webster's Unabridged Dictionary, he might have gone down to his grave with the coveted title, and a better name for honesty in keeping his contracts.⁴

The important educational periodical, the *Educational Review*, began a campaign against honorary Ph.D.'s and urged educators not to accept these degrees. In 1897, the *Review* published names of prominent offenders:

It is an instructive and discouraging commentary on the paper of Dr. Lukens, printed in this *Review* for June last, that the news-

³ Woolsey, Theodore D., "Academic Degrees, Especially Honorary Degrees in the United States." *Century Magazine*, Vol. 6, pp. 365-376, July, 1884.

⁴ Smith, Charles Forster "Honorary Degrees as Conferred in American Colleges," *U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 1*, 1890, p. 9.

papers recorded the following instances of the degree of Ph.D. being conferred *causa honoris*, in utter defiance of educational sentiment and conviction, at the last commencement season of 1897:

Hamilton College: Archibald C. McLachlan, Jamaica, N.Y.

St. John's College, Fordham: James H. Walsh.

Dartmouth College: Carroll D. Wright, Washington, D.C.

Union College: James E. Benedict, Washington, D.C., and

Franklin H. Giddings, Columbia University.

Up to this time no one of the gentlemen has publicly declined the degree, as did Librarian W. E. Foster of Providence a few years ago; but it is to be hoped that they will hesitate to add it to their names or to make any use of it.⁵

After 1900 the honorary Ph.D. degree declined almost to the vanishing point. However, it seems never to have stopped completely. As late as 1937, Harry L. (Bing) Crosby received an honorary Ph.D. from a Western institution.

THE PRESENT STATUS OF HONORARY DEGREES

For 1930 the Office of Education reported a total of 1,347 honorary degrees conferred by American colleges. In response to the writer's questionnaire, 266 institutions reported they had conferred 4,551 honorary degrees in the ten-year period 1929-38. By institution, this varied from none at all for 67 schools to 151 degrees for one university. Colleges and universities in the Northeast awarded more honorary degrees than those in the West or South. Contrary to popular opinion, the church-supported institutions were not the most prolific donors. Protestant schools averaged 16 each for the ten-year period while private colleges and universities averaged 29. The average for public institutions was 11, for Catholic colleges 12, and women's colleges, 3. Large institutions (over 1,000 enrollment) averaged 23 degrees and smaller ones 16 each.

The two most popular types of honorary degrees in these 266 institutions were the LL.D. and the D.D. (38 per cent and 28 per cent respectively). The Sc.D. was third with 10 per cent and the Litt.D. fourth with 8 per cent. Nearly fifty types made up the remainder including such titles as "Doctor of Education in Aeronautics" and "Master of Science in Military Science and Tactics." Honorary masters and bachelors degrees were much less frequently given than in the earlier decades.

⁵ *Educational Review*, Vol. 14, p. 190, September, 1897.

Since the War started, foreigners have received more honorary degrees, but in the 1929-38 period only 48 of over 4,000 awards were made to foreigners. Of these, 18 went to Englishmen, 6 to Canadians, 6 to Frenchmen, 3 to Germans, and 2 to Italians. Latin-Americans were seldom honored before 1939 but with the increased emphasis on better hemispheric relations, Columbia alone in 1941 and 1942 conferred six honorary doctorates on Latin-Americans.

Republicans outnumbered Democrats (58 per cent and 42 per cent respectively of the 248 political affiliations reported) while minority party men were absent from commencement platforms.

The tendency to honor those close to the conferring institution is clear. One-third or more of those honored were alumni. About one degree in 20 went to a trustee. One college awarded 20 degrees in the 1929-38 period and all 20 went to its own trustees.

The occupational distribution of recipients showed nearly one-third of the total were clergymen. Thirteen per cent were teachers and professors, 15 per cent were educational administrators (college presidents, etc.), 4 per cent were M.D.'s, and another 4 per cent were scientists. Business men and bankers took their usual 6 per cent while holders of political office were awarded 8 per cent of the honorary degrees.

OPINIONS

What does the public think of honorary degrees? The writer sought candid responses by promising anonymity to those whose opinions he sought.

College presidents are probably closer to this social phenomenon than any other group. In general, presidents were critical of honorary degrees but did not favor their elimination. However, over three-fourths of the 241 presidents who responded to this question preferred that the annual number be reduced. Over nine-tenths stated they favored titles for honorary degrees which would clearly distinguish them from earned degrees.

The case for honorary degrees was well stated by one president who said:

The positive values in conferring honorary degrees are to be found in the fact that they are a suitable recognition of outstanding work in education, religion, citizenship, or as a matter of fact, in any other capacity.

I have no doubt that there are abuses in the conferring of honorary degrees. We have tried to eliminate such abuses as much as possible

by demanding that requests for honorary degrees should come not from the prospective candidates but from others who are well acquainted with the candidate, but have not, as far as we know, in any sense conferred with him regarding this matter. . . .

I favor continuing the practice of conferring honorary degrees under the proper safeguards, and the most careful scrutiny of the administration and the faculty of the college conferring the degree.

David Starr Jordan gave his opinion of honorary degrees in these words:

The main purpose of a university is training, and its various degrees are essentially certificates of the amount and nature of its training. An honorary degree is, even at its best, something quite different—a tribute to character, education, or achievement outside of the academic walls.

The objections to the practice of conferring such an honor lie largely in the ease with which it is abused. The degree of LL.D. falls often to individuals of merely temporary prominence—politicians, officials, or headliners of the press—or to a merely wealthy man from whom possible gifts may be expected.

Some institutions have granted the degree *ad nauseam*, others very rarely, and a few, notably Cornell and Stanford, practically not at all. Some limit the title to those who have had, in one way or another, an integral relation to the institution concerned. Still others have recognized mainly presidents of sister universities, especially when they have been called in as commencement "orators." At the fiftieth celebration of the University of Wisconsin, each department chose from its colleagues in other institutions some professor it delighted to honor. But great is the outside pressure on officials of universities granting honorary degrees, the weight of the persistence being usually in inverse ratio to the fitness of the candidate proposed.⁶

Over one hundred farm, business and labor leaders were asked to express their opinions of honorary degrees. In general, farm leaders were neutral, business leaders favorable and labor leaders opposed to honorary degrees. Only one labor leader and one farm leader reported they had received honorary degrees, while over one-fifth of the business leaders answering had been recipients. All three groups criticized the awarding of degrees for financial favors. A farm leader observed that few or none of the awards came their way:

It is interesting to note that the Grange aided in establishing many

⁶ Jordan, David Starr, *The Trend of the American University*, Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1929, pp. 80-81.

of our Land Grant Colleges and that we have continually supported their appropriations for many years, yet I do not know of a Grange official ever receiving an honorary degree.

Journalists generally have a low regard for honorary degrees. Most of the newspaper comments which expressed opinions concerning honorary degrees were critical, humorous, or both. An editorial from a Maine newspaper is typical:

Some of these degrees are really honorary and confer a real distinction because of their recognition of some outstanding accomplishment. Because of this, however, they have become a valuable reward for just the friends of the colleges whose meriting achievement is a fat check to some college cause. These special friendships of the colleges rather lower the standards of the degrees generally, opening them to the criticism of the disgruntled.

Any ordinarily good citizen of fair standing in his community can get an honorary college degree if he sets about it right. College authorities are mostly complacent as the degrees cost them nothing and they do help now and then. A little log-rolling and leg-pulling with a bit of cash perhaps now and then will bring one in for almost anyone. The really valuable ones are never solicited, of course, but this makes solicitation more attractive to some people.

So the honorary college degrees do go very largely like royal honors, some for real merit and some for personal considerations alone. Every college turns out a batch of them every commencement, making them almost as common as Kentucky colonels.⁷

RECOMMENDATIONS

Some institutions have so abused the honorary degree privilege that a good case could be made for abandoning the practice entirely. Corrupt politicians in positions to aid universities, unscrupulous industrialists with money for gifts, second rate scholars with influential friends, mediocre college presidents with degree trading powers, ambitious clergymen who desire to be called "Doctor," staid trustees without intellectual achievements and many other unworthies have too often been the recipients of honorary degrees. However, in my opinion, these undeserving recipients are a minority. Nevertheless, the public does have a low opinion of honorary degrees probably because the unusual and less deserving awards receive more publicity. Princeton's award a few years ago to A. Harry Moore, then Gover-

⁷ *Augusta (Me.) Journal*, June 15, 1938.

nor of New Jersey and allegedly a henchman of Mayor Hague of Jersey City, produced several times as many news stories and editorials as did the granting of a degree at the same commencement to Secretary of State Cordell Hull. Unusual awards such as the honorary Ph.D. to Bing Crosby, the "Doctor of Physical Education" to Cornelius McGillicuddy (Connie Mack), or the giving of an honorary "Bachelor of Faithfulness" to the dog of a blind student received more notice in the press than an award to a deserving scholar.

It would be difficult to prove that honorary degrees are vital to higher education. The University of Virginia, Stanford, Cornell, and many other institutions, large and small, give no honorary degrees. In fact, in any given year fewer than half of our colleges and universities grant honorary degrees.

My study of honorary degrees convinces me that the system could be greatly improved if the following suggestions were practiced:

Suggestion one: Segregate honorary degrees from in-course degrees. Almost every in-course degree has been or still is given as an honorary degree. The result has been that the general public confuses some of the most common titles. Of a group of over one hundred persons, 82 per cent thought the Doctor of Laws, the most common honorary degree, was an in-course degree; 72 per cent thought the D.D. was in-course; and 31 per cent placed the Ph.D. in the honorary category.

Probably the best way to end the confusion would be for a committee of college presidents to devise new titles for honorary degrees which would not use the words "Doctor," "Master," or "Bachelor." If this is too drastic for the committee it might make the "Honorary Doctor" (D.Hon.), which is now in use in some Latin-American countries, the only honorary degree. Less effective in eliminating confusion, but an improvement over present practices would be to make the LL.D. the one and only honorary degree. This is now the practice at the University of California and a number of other institutions.

Suggestion two: National or regional accrediting organizations should formulate and enforce regulations for granting honorary degrees and pass on all recipients. Accrediting agencies have done much to improve standards in higher education. Their power of taking away the accreditation of an institution makes their rules respected. Through their accrediting agencies, the majority of the institutions of higher learning that are not abusing the honorary degree privilege could easily bring in line the few that do. The organizations could prescribe

which degrees may be given as honorary, fix the maximum number of awards per institution per year, and set requirements for determining the eligibility of candidates.

The quality of honorary degree recipients would probably be improved considerably if institutions were required to submit their lists of candidates well in advance of commencement to the accrediting organizations. Probably few refusals would occur because institutions would eliminate the dubious cases beforehand. A college would hesitate to submit the name of its own trustee who had no other qualification, or its own faculty member who wanted an honorary degree to compensate for the lack of an in-course one, or Mr. Money-bags who had made a large gift to the college, or the school superintendent who directed his graduates to the college. Submitting names and securing approval would take several months' time which would eliminate hasty and ill-advised last-minute decisions.

Probably no other organizations have the power and influence and are in the strategic position to improve the honorary degree system as are accrediting agencies. By eliminating the few awards which make the headlines and lower the prestige of the others, honorary degrees might be brought up to a level of respect which honorifics of higher learning should command.

Graduate and Professional Education for Negroes*

CHARLES E. ROCHELLE

DURING this war period, there is an obvious awareness in the United States of the aims and values of graduate study and research, and concurrent therewith there is an unusual interest in graduate instruction and professional education for Negroes in the Southern States where the need for this type of training for Negroes is urgent and the facilities are inadequate.

Recent interest in the provision by Southern States maintaining separate schools for white and colored students of graduate and professional education for Negroes has been intensified by the following: recent court decisions upholding the right of Negroes to attend state universities now attended only by white students where similar provisions are not supplied for Negroes; a rapid increase in Negro secondary school enrollment; an unusual increase in recent years in Negro college enrollment and graduates; the increase in the number of accredited institutions for Negroes; the demand for Negro teachers on all levels; the apparent need for a greater number of Negro physicians, dentists and lawyers; the need for better trained Negro leaders; and the need for graduate training for advancement in the teaching profession.

THE NEED

In spite of the Supreme Court decision in the Gaines Case (cited below), Arkansas, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Mississippi, and South Carolina have made no provision for the graduate or professional education of their Negro citizens nor have they made any provisions for scholarship aid for out-of-state study.

Alabama, Louisiana, Missouri, North Carolina, Texas, Virginia, and Tennessee have made limited provisions for the graduate instruction of Negro citizens at the established state college for Negroes, and Kentucky, Maryland, and Oklahoma do not attempt to offer any graduate or professional instruction to Negroes at public expense but have made

* This article is based upon a study of the same title made by the author as a dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education in Educational Administration in the Graduate Division of the University of California, Berkeley, during the summer of 1942.

provisions for the granting of scholarship aid under certain conditions to their qualified Negro citizens for out-of-state graduate and professional study.¹

Significant changes which have taken place in Negro education in the South, the demand for efficient educational and professional leadership, especially in that region, and the many unsolved social and economic problems confronting the Negro and his institutions indicate the need for graduate and professional instructions for Negroes.

There was a percentage in increase of the enrollment of Negro high school pupils in 1930 over 1920 of 506.2 per cent. There was also a percentage of increase of collegiate enrollment of Negro men of 742.82 per cent from 1917-18 to 1935-36; and a percentage of increase in collegiate enrollment of Negro women of 1554.08 per cent in the same period.²

Thirty-two of a total of 109 Negro Colleges have been accredited by recognized accrediting agencies. Fisk University and Howard Uni-

TABLE I
PRESENT RESIDENCE OF NEGRO LEADERS*

DIVISION	NEGRO LEADERS			
	Number	Per cent	Rank	Per cent of Negro Population
New England	47	3.0	7	.8
Middle Atlantic	491	30.9	1	8.9
East North Central	335	21.1	3	7.8
West North Central	70	4.4	5	2.8
Mountain	9	0.6	9	.2
Pacific	12	0.8	8	.8
South Atlantic	417	26.2	2	37.1
East South Central	146	9.2	4	22.4
West South Central	63	4.0	6	19.2
Total	1590	100.0		100.0

* Sanford Winston, "The Migration and Distribution of Negro Leaders in the United States," *Social Forces*, X (December, 1931), pp. 243-255. Data were secured from Who's Who in Colored America.

¹ Southern University Conference, *Proceedings, Constitution, and By-Laws, Addresses and Reports*. (Memphis, Tenn., Oct. 21-22, 1940) pp. 32-35.

² Ambrose Caliver, "Secondary Education for Negroes," *National Survey of Secondary Education*, Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, 1932 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1933), p. 52. Data secured from Biennial Survey reports of the Office of Education. See also, D. T. Blose and A. Caliver. *Statistics of the Education of Negroes*, 1933-34 and 1935-36, Office of Education Bulletin No. 13, 1938 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1939). p. 20.

versity are the only two Negro institutions accredited by the Association of American Universities.

The increase in teaching requirements indicates the need for graduate study for Negroes, if advancement in the teaching field is desired.

Negro lawyers, doctors, and dentists are not sufficiently numerous or widely enough distributed to render service desired in the Southern states.

Table 1 indicates that out of 1,590 Negro leaders studied in 1931, 491 lived in the Middle Atlantic states. The Southern Atlantic states, where most Negroes lived, ranked second as the residence of Negro leaders, but the disparity between the proportion of population (37 per cent) and the proportion of leaders (26 per cent) is significant.

PROVISION FOR GRADUATE AND PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION FOR NEGROES

In spite of the American ideal of equal educational opportunity for every child, an opportunity not inferior in its own kind to that given to others, Negroes have not been admitted to all the publicly supported graduate and professional schools of the Southern states.

During the period 1930-38, 521 Negro graduate students from the Southern states attended graduate institutions outside the South. The largest numbers of these Negro graduate students from the South attending Northern graduate institutions came from North Carolina, Virginia and Georgia. These students enrolled in a variety of fields of study but the greatest number enrolled in the field of education.³

Negro graduate students are a selective group coming mostly from homes where the fathers are engaged in skilled or professional work. Scholarships, loans, gifts, parental help, and proceeds from labor performed during the time spent as a graduate student are the sources for support for most Negro graduate students, and most Negro graduate students receive some outside financial aid to enable them to pursue graduate work. It also appears that Negro graduate students have a scholastic aptitude which correlates with work in the liberal arts college to a greater degree than with work in scientific or technical curricula.

In 1938, faculty members of Negro graduate institutions received

³Fred McCuiston, *Graduate Instruction for Negroes in the United States* (Nashville, Tennessee: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1939), pp. 56-57.

an average annual salary varying from \$2,134 at Prairie View to \$2,935 at Howard University.

Libraries of Negro graduate schools are apparently inadequate. A recent survey disclosed the fact that Negro institutions report approximately a total of 600,000 bound volumes in their combined libraries.

In 1937-1938 the total loan funds of these institutions were very meager and private gifts and grants to these institutions appeared to be diminishing. The General Education Board and the Rosenwald Fund are the sources for most fellowships awarded Negroes attending Negro graduate institutions.

The graduate school is the sole administrative agency in ten of the fourteen Negro institutions authorized to offer graduate work and most of the administrative agencies are known as graduate councils. Table 2 shows the administrative agencies of Negro graduate institutions.

The instructional cost per student in Negro graduate institutions ranges from \$57.56 to \$924.08.

Table 3 shows the scope of graduate study by major fields, 1941, in twelve Negro institutions offering graduate work. Forty-one fields, ranging from one at Hampton to nineteen at Prairie View, are offered by Negro institutions authorized to do graduate work.

The Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools has been most active in the accreditation of Negro institutions. Ten Negro institutions offering graduate work are accredited by this agency. Howard University and Fisk University are the only two Negro graduate institutions accredited by the Association of American Universities.

Although nine of the fourteen Negro graduate institutions are under public control, the majority of Negro graduate students attend institutions under private control. The enrollment and number of graduates from these institutions appeared to be increasing in number before the war, and females exceeded the males, both in enrollment and graduates.

Table 4 shows the quantitative standards for the master's degree in Negro graduate institutions. Data secured from the catalogues and bulletins of Negro institutions offering graduate work seem to indicate that a majority of them adhere to the quantitative standards for the master's degree endorsed by the Conference of Deans of Southern Graduate Schools, 1935-1936.

State aid for graduate and professional education as administered

TABLE 2
ADMINISTRATIVE AGENCIES OF NEGRO GRADUATE INSTITUTIONS¹

	GRADUATE SCHOOL SOLE ADMINISTRATIVE AGENCY	ADMINISTRATION DIVIDED BETWEEN GRADUATE SCHOOL AND OTHER SCHOOLS	ADMINISTRATIVE AGENCY
Howard University	x		Graduate Council of 18
Atlanta University	x		Committee on Graduate Study
Xavier University	x		Graduate School Council
North Carolina College for Negroes	x		Graduate Council
North Carolina A. and T. College	x		Graduate Committee
Fisk University	x		Educational Policy Committee
Prairie View State College	x		Committee on Graduate Study
Va. State College	x		Graduate Division
Lincoln Univ. (Mo.)	x		Graduate Council
Hampton Institute	x		Committee on Graduate Study
Kentucky State College		x	State Department of Education ⁵
Alabama State Teachers College ²			
Tennessee A. and I. State College ³			
Southern University ⁴			
Total	10	1	

¹ Data secured from 1941 announcements, bulletins, and catalogues of the above Negro institutions.

² No data.

³ Administrative agency not mentioned in bulletin.

⁴ No data.

⁵ Personal letter from Dean J. T. Williams dated Dec. 18, 1941 states that the State Department of Education of Kentucky offered two graduate courses in the campus of Kentucky State College during the summer term of 1940 through the University of Kentucky.

in the states of Kentucky, Maryland, Missouri, Oklahoma, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, and West Virginia varies as to appropriations for fellowships, amounts actually spent, amounts paid per student fellowship, number of students on fellowships, and as to the reaction of Negroes and state governments within each state to the scholarship aid program fostered by each state for out-of-state graduate and professional study of Negroes.

Howard University, Meharry Medical College, the North Carolina College for Negroes, and the Lincoln Law School are the only Negro institutions providing professional education in medicine, dentistry, or law.

TABLE 3
SCOPE OF GRADUATE STUDY BY MAJOR FIELDS, 1941, IN TWELVE NEGRO INSTITUTIONS¹

INSTITUTION	FIELD OF STUDY											
	Mathematics	Biology	Chemistry	Physics	History	Sociology	Economics	Techniques	Rural Education	Vocational Agriculture	Social Science	Home Making
Howard University	x	x	x	-	x	x	x	-	-	-	-	x
Atlanta University	x	x	x	-	x	x	x	-	-	-	-	x
Xavier University	x	-	x	-	x	x	x	-	-	-	-	x
N. Carolina College for Negroes	x	-	x	-	x	x	x	-	-	-	-	x
N. Carolina A. and T. College	-	x	x	-	x	x	x	-	-	-	-	x
Fisk University	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	-	-	-	-	x
Prairie View State College	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	-	-	-	-	x
Virginia St. College for Negroes	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Lincoln University (Mo.)	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hampton Institute	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Alabama State Teachers College	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Southern University	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	11	7	6	7	7	6	6	3	1	2	1	3

¹ Data taken from catalogues and bulletins of these institutions. Personal letters from the Deans state that no graduate work is being offered during 1941-1942 at Kentucky State College or at Tennessee A. & I. State College, so these institutions are omitted from this table. The heading "Technical Branches" refers to trade training, machine shop, electric wiring, etc.; "Agricultural Sciences" to Agronomy (nature of soils, etc.), animal husbandry, etc.

TABLE 3 (continued)

INSTITUTION	FIELD OF STUDY												TOTAL
	Business Administration	Social Work	Policical Science	Latia	Home Ec.	Agricultural Sciences	Economics	Rural Sociology	General Education	Mech. Arts	Industrial Education	Commercial Education	
Howard University	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	17
Atlanta University	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	14
Xavier University	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4
N. Carolina College for Negroes	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	19
N. Carolina A. and T. College	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	14
Fisk University	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	14
Prairie View State College	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	19
Virginia St. College for Negroes	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	16
Lincoln University (Mo.)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
Hampton Institute	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Alabama State Teachers College	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Southern University	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Total	1	2	4	1	2	1	2	2	1	2	2	2	122

TABLE 4 : QUANTITATIVE STANDARDS FOR THE MASTER'S DEGREE IN NEGRO INSTITUTIONS

INSTITUTION	A ²	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N
Howard University	x ³	x	x	x	x	n	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Atlanta University	n ⁴	x	x	x	x	n	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Xavier University	x	n	x	x	x	n	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
North Carolina College for Negroes	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
North Carolina A. and T. College	x	x	x	x	x	n	x	n	n	x	x	x	x	x
Fisk University	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Prairie View State College	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Virginia State College for Negroes	x	n	x	x	x	x	x	n	x	x	x	x	x	x
Lincoln University (Mo.)	x	n	x	x	n	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Hampton Institute	x	n	x	x	x	x	x	x	n	n	n	n	x	x
Kentucky State College ⁵	n	x	x	x	n	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	n	x
Alabama State Teachers College ⁶	x	n	x	x	x	n	x	x	n	x	x	n	x	n
Tennessee A. and I. State College ⁷	x	n	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	n	n

¹ Data secured from the 1941 announcements, bulletins, and catalogues of these institutions.² Minimum standards endorsed by the Conference of Deans of Southern Graduate Schools 1935-36. *Proceedings, Constitution and By-Laws, Addresses and Reports* (Memphis, Tenn., Oct. 21-22, 1940), pp. 169-170.³ A. Admission: Bachelor's degree from standard recognized college accredited by a regional or general accrediting agency.⁴ B. Undergraduate major: 12 hours of advanced work.⁵ C. Candidacy: Student must show aptitude during a semester or quarter of residence to accomplish work of graduate character.⁶ D. Course Requirement: 24 to 30 semester hours of graduate work in course with a "B" grade.⁷ E. At least one-half of the courses included in the student's program should be passed by the candidate covering the major field.⁸ F. Majors and Minors: Major field should comprise two-thirds of the work and minor field one-third of the work within the department or in an allied department.⁹ G. Thesis: Thesis is required.¹⁰ H. Foreign language: A reading knowledge of at least one foreign language shall be required.¹¹ I. Transferred Credits: No credit from another institution may be transferred toward the Master's degree.¹² J. Minimum Residence: A residence of at least nine months or thirty-six weeks in the regular session or the full equivalent of this residence period in summer work is required.¹³ K. Comprehensive Examinations: A comprehensive written or oral examination shall be passed by the candidate covering the major field.¹⁴ L. Credits by correspondence or Extension Study: No credits toward the Master's degree may be obtained by correspondence or extension study.¹⁵ M. Time limit: Five year time limit.¹⁶ N. Administration of Degrees: All graduate degrees shall be administered by the Graduate School.¹⁷ O. Administration of Degrees: All graduate degrees shall be administered by the Graduate School.¹⁸ P. Administration of Degrees: All graduate degrees shall be administered by the Graduate School.¹⁹ Q. Administration of Degrees: All graduate degrees shall be administered by the Graduate School.²⁰ R. Administration of Degrees: All graduate degrees shall be administered by the Graduate School.²¹ S. Administration of Degrees: All graduate degrees shall be administered by the Graduate School.²² T. Administration of Degrees: All graduate degrees shall be administered by the Graduate School.²³ U. Administration of Degrees: All graduate degrees shall be administered by the Graduate School.²⁴ V. Administration of Degrees: All graduate degrees shall be administered by the Graduate School.²⁵ W. Administration of Degrees: All graduate degrees shall be administered by the Graduate School.²⁶ X. Administration of Degrees: All graduate degrees shall be administered by the Graduate School.²⁷ Y. Administration of Degrees: All graduate degrees shall be administered by the Graduate School.²⁸ Z. Administration of Degrees: All graduate degrees shall be administered by the Graduate School.²⁹ AA. Administration of Degrees: All graduate degrees shall be administered by the Graduate School.³⁰ BB. Administration of Degrees: All graduate degrees shall be administered by the Graduate School.³¹ CC. Administration of Degrees: All graduate degrees shall be administered by the Graduate School.³² DD. Administration of Degrees: All graduate degrees shall be administered by the Graduate School.³³ EE. Administration of Degrees: All graduate degrees shall be administered by the Graduate School.³⁴ FF. Administration of Degrees: All graduate degrees shall be administered by the Graduate School.³⁵ GG. Administration of Degrees: All graduate degrees shall be administered by the Graduate School.³⁶ HH. Administration of Degrees: All graduate degrees shall be administered by the Graduate School.³⁷ II. Administration of Degrees: All graduate degrees shall be administered by the Graduate School.³⁸ JJ. Administration of Degrees: All graduate degrees shall be administered by the Graduate School.

Most Negro doctors, dentists, and lawyers of the Southern states are graduates from Howard University or Meharry Medical College but many Negroes who reside in the South attend institutions outside the South to secure professional training.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE SUPREME COURT DECISION IN THE GAINES CASE FOR GRADUATE AND PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION FOR NEGROES

The decision of the United States Supreme Court in December, 1938, which was reaffirmed in January, 1939, in the case of *Lloyd L. Gaines vs. S. W. Canada, Registrar of the University and the Curators of the University of Missouri*, has some implications which are certain to affect the status of graduate and professional education for Negroes in the Southern States.

The Supreme Court decision in this case constitutes one of the most important decisions that have been rendered in recent years on constitutional rights of Negroes and other minority groups. It has probably done more than anything else to focus attention on the problem of providing graduate and professional education for Negroes in the Southern states.

The issue and decision in this case are given in Table 5. This table reveals that Gaines sought to compel his admission to the school of law of the University of Missouri in 1936. He won the case with limitations, as the Supreme Court remanded the case to the state courts with a direction that they order Gaines' admission to the law school of the University of Missouri or show cause why this should not be done. This was on December 12, 1938.

The Supreme Court, in its majority report, held that Gaines had been denied his constitutional right when he was refused admittance to the law school of the University of Missouri. The following appears in the body of the majority opinion of the United States Supreme Court in this case:

We think that these matters are beside the point. The basic consideration is not as to what sort of opportunities other states provide, or whether they are as good as those in Missouri, but as to what opportunities Missouri itself furnishes to white students and denies to Negroes solely upon the ground of color. The admissibility of laws separating the races in the enjoyment of privileges afforded by the State rests wholly upon the equality of the privileges which the laws give to the separated groups within the State. The question here is not of a duty of the State to supply legal training, or of the quality

TABLE 5
CASES RELATIVE TO GRADUATE AND PROFESSIONAL STUDY FOR
NEGROES, 1930-1941, BY STATES WITH ISSUES INVOLVED
AND DECISIONS RENDERED¹

STATE	CASE	ISSUE	DECISION
North Carolina	Hocutt v. The University of North Carolina ² (1933)	Sought Admission to the School of Pharmacy of the University of N.C.	Refused admittance on ground of lack of eligibility
Maryland	Pearson, et al. v. Murray, 168 Md. 478; 182 A 592 (1935)	To compel admission to School of Law of Maryland University	Granted admittance by Maryland Court of Appeals
Tennessee	William Redmond v. University of Tennessee; see ³ (1936)	Sought admission to School of Pharmacy, Univ. of Tennessee	Chancery Court of Memphis denied his application in March, 1937
Missouri	Lloyd Gaines v. S.W. Canada, et al. ⁴ 113 S.W. (2nd) 783 (1936)	To compel admission to School of Law of the University of Missouri	Matter remanded to State courts with direction that they order Gaines' admission or show cause for not doing so
Missouri	Lucille Bluford v. S. W. Canada, et al., ⁵ U.S.C.A. Tit. 8, Sec. 43 (1939)	To compel admission to School of Journalism of University of Missouri	State Supreme Court sustained trial court in its refusal to grant mandamus on ground there had been no prior demand upon Lincoln Univ. by Miss Bluford for the introduction of such a course
Tennessee	Homer L. Saunders, Clinton M. Marsh, Walter S. E. Hardy and Ezra Totton v. University of Tennessee ⁶ (1939)	To compel admission to Graduate School of University of Tennessee	Chancery Court of Knox County, Tennessee, decided that questions involved in the suit against the Univ. of Tennessee are moot or have no standing in court
Tennessee	P. L. Smith and Joseph M. Michael v. University of Tennessee ⁷ (1939)	To compel admission to the School of Law of the University of Tennessee	Chancery Court of Knox County, Tennessee, decided that questions involved in the suit against the University of Tennessee are moot or have no standing in Court
Kentucky	Charles Eubank v. University of Kentucky ⁸ (1941)	To compel admission to School of Engineering of the University of Kentucky	Case pending in the Federal Court of Kentucky

¹ Adapted from Leon Ransom, "A Legal Status of Negro Education Under Separate School Systems," *Journal of Negro Education*, VIII, No. 3 (July, 1939), pp. 395-406. Also Henry J. McGuinn, "The Courts and Equality of Educational Opportunity," *Journal of Negro Education*, VIII, No. 2 (April, 1939), pp. 150-163.

² Filed in 1933. No official report of case was made. See Ransom, *op. cit.*, p. 399.

³ Unreported officially. See Ransom, *op. cit.*, p. 400.

⁴ 305 U.S. 377, 59 S. Ct. 232, 83 L. ed. 207 (1938). See *Journal of Negro Education*, VIII, No. 2 (April, 1939), pp. 131-141.

⁵ Case heard July 8, 1941. See *Journal of Negro Education*, X, No. 4 (Oct., 1941), p. 716.

⁶ Case heard Dec. 4, 1941. See "N.A.A.C.P. Fights Muzzling of Prosecution," *Chicago Defender*, XXXVII, No. 35 (Dec. 20, 1941), p. 2. Citation not yet available.

⁷ Case heard Dec. 4, 1941. See *Chicago Defender*, loc. cit.

⁸ Case filed in September 1941. Personal letter from Attorney Prentice Thomas dated Dec. 27, 1941 states the case is filed in the Eastern District United States Court, Lexington, Kentucky, No. 12938. He further states that when the case is called for trial it will be adjudged moot for the reason that the State is in the act of establishing an engineering school at Kentucky State College, Frankfort, Kentucky.

of the training which it does supply, but of its duty when it provides such training to furnish it to the residents of the State upon the basis of an equality of right. By the operation of the laws of Missouri a privilege has been created for white law students which is denied to Negroes by reason of their race. The white student is afforded legal education within the State; the Negro resident having the same qualifications is refused it there and must go outside the State to obtain it. That is a denial of the equality of legal right to the enjoyment of the privilege which the State has set up, and the provision for the payment of tuition fees in another state does not remove the discrimination.

The Court also stated that the fact that only one Negro demanded legal training had no bearing upon the case. In regard to this point the Court says:

Nor can we regard the fact that there is but a limited demand in Missouri for the legal education of Negroes as excusing the discrimination in favor of whites. We had occasion to consider a cognate question in the case of *McCabe vs. Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fe Railway Co.*, supra. There the argument was advanced, in relation to the provision by a carrier of sleeping cars, dining and chair cars, that the limited demand by Negroes justified the State in permitting the furnishing of such accommodations exclusively for white persons. We found that argument to be without merit. It made, we said, the constitutional right depend upon the number of persons who may be discriminated against, whereas the essence of the constitutional right is that it is a personal one. Whether or not particular facilities shall be provided may doubtless be conditioned upon there being a reasonable demand therefor, but, if facilities are provided, substantial equality of treatment of persons travelling under like conditions cannot be refused. It is the individual who is entitled to the equal protection of the laws and if he is denied by a common carrier, acting in the matter under the authority of a state law, a facility or convenience in the course of his journey which under substantially the same circumstances is furnished to another traveler, he may properly complain that his constitutional privilege has been invaded.

Here, petitioner's right was a personal one. It was as an individual that he was entitled to the equal protection of the laws, and the State was bound to furnish him within its border facilities for legal education substantially equal to those which the State there afforded for persons of the white race, whether or not other Negroes sought the same opportunity.

A minority report of the United States Supreme Court sustained the Supreme Court of Missouri in refusing Gaines a writ of mandamus

to compel his admission to the law school of the University of Missouri. Associate Justices McReynolds and Butler concurred in this report. It says:

Considering the disclosures of the record, the Supreme Court of Missouri arrived at a tenable conclusion and its judgment should be affirmed. That court well understood the grave difficulties of the situation and rightly refused to upset the settled legislative policy of the State by directing a mandamus.

While the Gaines case is the first case of its kind which has reached the Supreme Court, there have been other instances where Negroes have brought suits in state courts, alleging that the state made no provision or made inadequate provision for the instruction of its Negro citizens on the graduate and professional levels. Table 5 provides a summary by states of cases relative to graduate and professional study for Negroes, 1930-1941, with issues involved and decisions rendered.

Holmes* states that the implications of the Supreme Court decision in the Gaines case are three in number. He says:

The first is, that whatever educational opportunity is provided for one citizen by the state within the state must be offered to any citizen by the state within the state who meets the same basic requirements whether the dual system prevails or not. That is to say, no state can violate the constitutional rights of any citizen merely because it believes in the separation of the races in schools. The court has long since decided that the mere act of separation does not violate the constitution rights of any citizen, provided there is made available equal opportunities to all citizens. The luxury of educational segregation at the post-collegiate level, therefore, seems to be perfectly legal and at the same time promises to prove immensely expensive.

The second is, that the education offered the two citizens must be equal in quality. The supreme court does not say either that the state must offer any kind of education to anybody, or that equal educational opportunities must be offered in the same place. This means that the only obligation upon a state with reference to its colored citizens is to offer the same kind of education to them that it offers white citizens and to offer that education within the state.

It must be noted, in the third place, that the Gaines decision very clearly states that no state can force a citizen to accept funds for

*D. O. W. Holmes, "The Present Problems Involved in Graduate and Professional Training for Negroes in the South," *Proceedings of the Sixth Annual Meeting of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools for Negroes*. Durham, N.C., 1939, pp. 36-43.

scholarships outside the state in lieu of the provision of equal educational opportunity within the state. But it does not state that it is illegal for any prospective student to accept such scholarships. It is very clear, therefore, that so long as a state offers scholarships to study outside the state and applicants accept them, everything is perfectly legal, provided, of course, that the state at the same time offers equal educational facilities within the state for both races.

FUTURE POSSIBILITIES FOR GRADUATE AND PROFESSIONAL INSTRUCTION FOR NEGROES

Table 6 shows the methods discussed and their sources for the provision of graduate and professional education for Negroes in states having separate schools. The development of graduate departments in all the state colleges for Negroes or in the land grant colleges only, admission of Negroes into state universities and the provision of scholarships for out-of-state study are the methods for the provision of graduate and professional study for Negroes in the Southern states most freely discussed.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE POSTWAR PERIOD

In view of the findings presented in the study from which the material for this article was obtained, the following recommendations are made:

1. Southern states should make available to Negroes all types of graduate and professional education available to white persons within a given state. This should be done by admitting qualified Negroes to state universities or developing comparable Negro institutions.
2. Support for institutions of higher education in the Southern states should be so increased and equitably distributed, and the standards so raised, as to approximate as nearly as possible an equal educational opportunity for Negro persons and white persons.
3. In order to provide equal educational opportunity on all levels and for all citizens within their borders, it is recommended that each state educational system receive federal financial support. This support should be based upon need and ability. Controls should be provided to insure that federal funds are used to increase equality of educational opportunity.
4. Southern states not having done so should make a survey of the needs and possibilities of graduate and professional training for Negroes within their own borders before any such provisions are made, and then only "fundamental" provisions should be made. No

TABLE 6 : METHODS DISCUSSED AND THEIR SOURCES FOR THE PROVISION OF GRADUATE AND PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION FOR NEGROES IN STATES HAVING SEPARATE SCHOOLS

PROPOSED METHODS ¹	SOURCES							Total			
	Caldwell ²	Cox ³	Pipkin ⁴	Holmes ⁵	Wesley ⁶	McKinney ⁷	McCulliston ⁸	Johnston ¹⁰	Thompson ¹¹	Ransom ¹²	
1. Admission of Negroes into State Universities	x			x	x	x	x	x	x		8
2. Development of Graduate Departments in all the State Colleges for Negroes or in the Land Grant Colleges only	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x		10
3. Creation within existing institutions for white students of new divisions for Negro students	x				x		x				1
4. Scholarships in privately controlled institutions for Negroes within state	x				x						
5. Cooperative action by faculties of universities for maintenance of separate graduate courses for Negro students outside the state or private university	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x		5
6. Set up regional universities	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x			3
7. Provide scholarships for out-of-state study	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		6
Total	6	3	3	4	4	2	4	4	4	3	41

¹ x under author's name indicates he has discussed the method.

² Harmon W. Caldwell, "Graduate and Professional Instruction for Negroes," Southern University Conference, *Proceedings, Constitution and By-Laws, Addresses and Reports* (Atlanta, Ga., 1939), pp. 91-95.
³ Harmon W. Caldwell, et al., "Report of Committee on Graduate and Professional Instruction for Negroes," *Southern University Conference, Proceedings, Constitution and By-Laws, Addresses and Reports* (Memphis, Tenn., 1940), pp. 28-55.

⁴ Oliver C. Cox, "Provisions for Graduate Education Among Negroes, and the Prospects of a New System," *Journal of Negro Education*, IX, No. 1 (January, 1940), pp. 22-31.

⁵ Charles W. Pipkin, *Graduate Work in the South*, pp. 29-36.

⁶ D. O. W. Holmes, *The Present Problems Involved in Graduate and Professional Training for Negroes in the South*, pp. 5-11.

⁷ Charles H. Wesley, *Graduate Education for Negroes in Southern Universities* (Reprint), pp. 82-94.

⁸ T. E. McKinney, et al., "Report of Commission on Institutions of Higher Education," *Proceedings of the Sixth Annual Meeting of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools for Negroes* (Durham, North Carolina, 1939), p. 34.

⁹ Fred McCulliston, "Graduate Instruction for Negroes in the United States, Summary and Conclusions," *Proceedings of the Fifth Annual Meeting of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools for Negroes* (Tallahassee, Florida, 1938), pp. 99-104.

¹⁰ Rufus E. Clement, "Legal Provisions for Graduate and Professional Instruction for Negroes in States Operating Separate School Systems," *Ibid.*, pp. 108-117.

¹¹ Guy B. Johnson, "Graduate Study for Southern Negro Students," *Proceedings of the Fourth Annual Meeting of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools for Negroes* (New Orleans, La., 1937), pp. 38-47.

¹² Charles Thompson, "The Mission of Negro Education," *Journal of Negro Education*, III, No. 2 (April, 1939), pp. 131-142.

¹³ Leon Ransom, "State Aid on Scholarship, Legislated," *Journal of Negro Education*, X, No. 2 (January, 1940), pp. 121-126.

arrangements for graduate and professional training for Negroes should be made which are not educationally sound.

5. Graduate work in Negro institutions offering graduate instruction should be offered in courses co-ordinate with the needs of Negroes in the Southern States.

6. All legal barriers to Negroes' being admitted to Southern publicly supported graduate and professional institutions should be removed and Negroes admitted where possible. Where "equal" facilities are provided the "co-operative plan" should be used until adequate libraries, personnel, equipment and any other needed facilities are available to guarantee graduate and professional work on an accepted level.

Where Negroes are admitted for the first time to Southern graduate and professional institutions now attended only by white students, it might be well to admit a few well qualified Negroes during an experimental period of five years. If the experiment proves a success, Negro students should be admitted to these institutions on equal terms with white students.

7. All Southern states should provide out-of-state scholarships for graduate and professional training for Negroes. A minimum amount of \$600.00 should be provided for recipients of these scholarships. These scholarships should be used only as temporary means to provide graduate and professional training for Negroes while sound arrangements are being made to meet the requirements of the Supreme Court decision in the Gaines case. Negroes should continue to accept scholarships for out-of-state study, but should do so voluntarily. No guarantee should be given by any recipient of these scholarships that he will not insist upon his full constitutional right to equal educational opportunity within the borders of the state wherein he resides.

8. Southern states not having done so should appoint a committee composed of both white and Negro educators to study the situation and draw up reasonable plans to meet the requirements of the Supreme Court decision in the Gaines case.

9. A campaign for a democratically organized school system should be inaugurated at once in all of the Southern states. Emphasis should be placed during the campaign upon social education.

EDITOR'S NOTE: Shortly after this article went to press, the United States Office of Education issued Misc. No. 6, Volume IV: *National Survey of the Higher Education of Negroes—a Summary*. This is an able and highly informative study, summarizing the contents of three earlier publications. It may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington. 15¢.

Defining, Assessing, and Reporting Student Progress in the Freshman Program of the College of Education, the Ohio State University

HOWARD P. BACKUS

A RECENT addition to the instrumentalities which serve as guides in shaping educational experiences of students in the College of Education, Ohio State University, is the *Adviser's Report to the Committee on Junior Standing*.¹ It is the purpose of this article to describe that instrument, particularly as it is designed to aid in the evaluation and reporting of student progress in certain so-called "intangibles" regarded as important in the professional program.

In any consideration of appraising and reporting student growth, the teacher-education institution is faced with a well known complex of problems which, possibly because they are so ever-present, tend frequently to escape clear definition. One of these challenging problems is that of assessing and recording achievement by such methods that administrator, instructor, and student have a uniform conception of what the data mean. Closely related to this problem is the business of standardizing the local professional vocabulary so that terms used actually convey the same sense to all those involved in the teaching-learning situation. The much larger problem with which these lesser ones are merged, is bi-nuclear. It may be expressed as (1) getting a consensus of faculty opinion as to what characteristics and abilities ought to be developed in the student to insure his becoming a successful teacher; and (2) agreeing upon what behaviors, manifested by students in the process of their professional preparation, are significant as affording evidence of the acquisition and enhancement of these necessary traits and abilities.

If the curriculum is conceived to be rather exclusively a schedule of logically organized bodies of subject-matter, taken as courses leading to a degree or certificate after garnering a certain minimum of hours of credit, these problems are nevertheless real ones since choice

¹ Ohio State University, College of Education, *Adviser's Report to the Committee on Junior Standing*. Columbus, Ohio: The College; 1942. 20 pp.

of subjects and selection of content must ultimately be validated in terms of professors' value-judgment. If, however, as in the College of Education at Ohio State University, it is believed "both possible and desirable to develop through appropriate educational experiences, the whole range of personal and social characteristics and abilities of students,"² the task of standardizing appraisal techniques and recording procedures assumes really great proportions. If also, as at the College of Education, professional education is thought appropriately to begin at enrollment and to develop concurrently with acquisition of subject-matter, the problem is further complicated by the need for a professionally slanted guidance and evaluation program at the freshman-sophomore level.

The *Adviser's Report* has been so designed as to contribute to the amelioration of all these problems, but serves the immediate administrative purpose of providing better machinery for processing data accumulated for sophomore students, who, because they have reached their sixth quarter, are candidates for upper-division (junior standing) status.

The College personnel program, developed gradually over a period of years, was the subject of an intensive inquiry by a representative faculty group in 1937. From these deliberations there was formulated a set of principles which give unusual recognition to the element of individual diagnosis. We find these principles implicit in the outstanding characteristics of the present program:³

1. Development of competency is sought in each student through self-insight and planning.
2. Individual diagnosis forms the basis of the guidance program. The student has access to remedial services, planned opportunities for experiences designed to overcome weaknesses, and supervised practice in educational situations when his records indicate his need for them.
3. The guidance activities start before college entrance and continue after graduation and placement. These activities are not limited to the interview room, to the classroom, or to the campus.
4. Resources are marshalled about the individual student rather than organized in terms of an administrative co-ordination of areas.
5. Certain effective, yet administratively feasible, personnel proce-

² Klein, A. J. et al, *Adventures in the Reconstruction of Education*. Columbus, Ohio; Ohio State University, College of Education; 1941. 290 pp.

³ Ibid., pp. 33-34.

dures have been worked out. An example of this is the use of the counselor-training program to provide increased personnel service for lower-division students.

The student-adviser relationship is the key to the implementation of the program. This has its inception in the College's first-quarter, five-hour, orientation course known as Education Survey 407. The adviser assigned to a given student is the instructor of the section of Education Survey in which that student is enrolled. The experiences developed in this course are such as to promote self-insight and planning on the part of the individual student as well as of the discussion group. In this flexibly organized and informal situation there is ample opportunity for the instructor-adviser to become acquainted with his advisees. Here an official, friendly relationship is established which does not terminate with the end of the survey course but continues throughout the first six quarters, or until, on passing the junior-standing evaluation, the student is assigned an upper-division adviser selected from the faculty members in the area of his major subject emphasis.

Throughout the two-year interval during which the freshman adviser sponsors a student there accumulates in his guidance folder a great deal of evidence concerning his activities, his attitudes, his scholastic accomplishment, his health—in fact, concerning his adjustment to college living in a great many respects. These data are found in such diverse materials as enrollment blanks, quiz papers, essays written in Survey class, standardized tests, notes on interviews, duplicates of quarterly schedules and marks, correspondence, self-rating blanks, and field-trip summaries. The analysis of this material and its synthesis into a satisfactory final report are a major responsibility of the adviser. This report is important because it is intended to brief the student's record and to represent the adviser's best judgment of his over-all fitness to enter the professional program on a more intensive basis. The task of writing out these reports has always been onerous. The adviser has felt under a moral compulsion to exercise great care in developing his recommendation but has found it irksome to spare as much time from his other duties as an adequate report necessitates. Prior to the advent of the new *Adviser's Report*, the adviser was supplied with a four-page mimeographed blank listing sixteen captions under which he was expected to compose suitable statements. A guide sheet suggested in a few brief phrases what these captions were intended to mean, but interpretation was left largely to the adviser.

Some of the captions, such as "Ability to Think" and "Healthy Social Adjustment" failed to call forth anything like a uniform interpretation by different advisers, since they had not been agreed upon in terms of what things students do who evidence competence in these traits.

The new *Adviser's Report* not only condenses these sixteen categories to ten, but provides scales on which achievement can be recorded with little effort. While the number of competencies is reduced, the document is much more comprehensively set up since these traits and abilities are identified in some detail. Each competency is stated in terms of the several traits or "aspects" which characterize it, and each of the aspects is then illustrated through the device of suggesting representative behaviors.

Seven of the competency-scales are to be filled out by the adviser; the last three are to be completed in the Junior Dean's office from office records. While it would be impracticable to reproduce here each competency in its complete definition, all will be listed and one will be chosen for more detailed comment.

SCALE A: PROFESSIONAL PERSONALITY

- Aspect 1: Dependability
- Aspect 2: Interest in people
- Aspect 3: Initiative
- Aspect 4: Capacity for stimulating others
- Aspect 5: Professional-mindedness
- Aspect 6: Perseverance

SCALE B: PERSONAL ADJUSTMENT

- Aspect 1: Insight into self
- Aspect 2: Social acceptability
- Aspect 3: Social sensitivity
- Aspect 4: Adjusting to college life
- Aspect 5: Manner
- Aspect 6: Appearance, dress, posture

SCALE C: THINKING-PLANNING

- Aspect 1: Exemplifying democratic values
- Aspect 2: Having his purposes clear
- Aspect 3: Recognizing problems
- Aspect 4: Using people and human relationships
- Aspect 5: Using other resources
- Aspect 6: Employing hypotheses
- Aspect 7: Collecting and organizing data

- Aspect 8: Interpreting data
- Aspect 9: Thinking independently
- Aspect 10: Carrying plans into action

SCALE D: SPEAKING SKILLS

- Aspect 1: Fitting ideas to the situation
- Aspect 2: Adapting presentation to the situation
- Aspect 3: Organizing and expressing ideas
- Aspect 4: Using acceptable grammar and sentence structure
- Aspect 5: Articulating words
- Aspect 6: Using the voice effectively

SCALE E: WRITING SKILLS

- Aspect 1: Fitting ideas to the situation
- Aspect 2: Presenting ideas on paper
- Aspect 3: Organizing and expressing ideas
- Aspect 4: Using acceptable grammar and sentence structure
- Aspect 5: Spelling

SCALE F: RECREATIONAL SKILLS AND INTERESTS

- Aspect 1: Understanding the nature of recreation
- Aspect 2: Seeking carry-over value
- Aspect 3: Attaining range and variety
- Aspect 4: Developing skills

SCALE G: INFORMATIONAL BACKGROUND

- Aspect 1: Business and commerce
- Aspect 2: Contemporary affairs
- Aspect 3: Foreign languages
- Aspect 4: Health
- Aspect 5: History and social studies
- Aspect 6: Literature and drama
- Aspect 7: Mathematics
- Aspect 8: Music and dance
- Aspect 9: Science
- Aspect 10: Knowledge of individual differences and individual development
- Aspect 11: Arts and crafts

SCALE H: HEALTH**SCALE I: ABILITY TO DO COURSE WORK****SCALE J: PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCES****DEFINING THINKING-PLANNING**

The most difficult of all the traits or competencies to identify in terms of aspects and illustrative behaviors has been the one desig-

nated as "Thinking-Planning." In the evolving personnel program of the College strong allegiance is given to the idea that planning, both personal and social, constitutes an important feature of democratic living. This attitude is well formulated in the literature of the College. Planning is described as the central concept around which the materials, methods, and approach in the freshman program are developed. The freshman orientation course is built around the idea of functional personal planning as a unifying theme. The program proposes to guide the student in ascertaining specifically his strengths and weaknesses in the light of his projected goals, and to try out hypotheses entertained as leading to the satisfaction of these objectives.

Despite the emphasis which has been placed on planning as a competency in which prospective teachers should develop considerable skill, the appraisal of this skill by advisers has presented many difficulties. It is logical, therefore, that when the faculty recently delegated to the Committee on Admission to Junior Standing the task of evaluating candidates for upper-division status, the Committee should first attempt to render into more meaningful terms not only the skill referred to as "planning" but certain closely related competencies. Among these was "reflective thinking."

"Thinking-planning" is the term employed to describe the process of reflective thinking, applied to the operational field of planning. In the search for a frame of reference in which student planning might be more meaningfully intellectualized in the classroom, thinking-planning offers distinct advantages. It is capable of translation into behavioral terms such that not only can the student objectify his planning rôle but the adviser can guide instruction and evaluate student growth in this competency.

Thinking-planning, in fusing the competencies of reflective thinking and personal planning, places in their normal relationship a large constellation of traits, some of which are attitudes, some of which are understandings, some of which are skills of logical reasoning, and some of which are actual manipulations of the environment. As developed for evaluative purposes, thinking-planning is thought of as consisting of ten "aspects" or traits. These are not discrete characters, but are regarded as unities in terms of which it is possible for the adviser and student to focus attention on planning behavior for purposes of discussion or evaluation. Each of the ten aspects is identified in terms of operations agreed upon as exemplifying that particular trait. "Herein lies the particular advantage of thinking-planning as a

SCALE C THINKING-PLANNING DEFINITIONS OF TEN ASPECTS OF THINKING-PLANNING
exclusive, but serve as points of reference in considering the Thinking-Planning process on which we can conveniently focus our attention.

EXAMPLEFYING DEMOCRATIC VALUES: Believes in a "democratic break" for all men regardless of race, creed, color or class; believes in the right of all men to speak their minds and to have their say; wants to pitch in and help things move forward; likes to make decisions for himself and wants the same thing for others; thinks that if one makes a decision one should take the consequences; won't be pushed around and doesn't push others.

HAVING HIS PURPOSES CLEAR: Has done some careful thinking about his life work; relates thinking to both immediate and long-range goals; has a satisfactory "feeling-up" adjustment; personal philosophy holds convictions but in fact, is a built-in-deed; sees where he wishes to be in relation to where he is; has intellectualized some of his important beliefs and values.

RECOGNIZING PROBLEMS: Sees gaps between things as they are and as they ought to be; attacks a problem as a whole; problems don't depend upon others to solve them; likes to do his own thinking; does not depend upon others to solve his problems; does not depend upon others to get up his problems; much alive to the existence of problems; does not confuse symptoms with causes.

USING PEOPLE AND HUMAN RELATIONSHIPS: Knows people to whom he can go for help; knows how to approach and use them; does not exploit or loan too much on people; "keeps well"; maintains congenial relationships with neighbors and new contacts; aims to render service and courtesy in returns; his contacts are not limited to those of his own sex, age, or status.

USING OTHER RESOURCES: Has a good knowledge of background without being "bookish"; has knowledge and past experience to draw upon; problems, has learned from his travel experiences; and draws upon books and other sources for information; uses institutions, such as libraries, art galleries, social agencies, churches, the government, museums, radio, etc.

EMPLOYING HYPOTHESES: Takes time and pains to inventory all possible causes, methods of solving the things thought; looks for statements to do with consequences; has a general attitude of objectivity to solving things through; uses hypotheses to prove or disprove; has an interest in inventing hypotheses; uses hypotheses to test out theories and to evaluate them; is continually evaluating and re-evaluating his plans.

COLLECTING AND ORGANIZING DATA: Wants to get available evidence; uses about getting the facts systematically; discriminates between authority and half-truth; does not "dig down" in getting the data to the point of delaying organization and action; demonstrates facility in classifying, tabulating, and ordering of data; has a good sense of what data are relevant to the problem.

INTERPRETING DATA: Tends to be somewhat objective; generally accepts the responsibility of action and reasonably daring; refers to half "probable" to refer to false such as "probable" to refer to true such as "probable"; identifies main points; distinguishes between "head-up" and "head-away" arguments.

THINKING INDEPENDENTLY: Has mind of his own; self-reliant; not easily pushed around or browbeaten; distinguishes between fact and a rumour; wants a firm stand; recognizes commonacy produced by which gullible persons are deceived; avoids holding words and bugbears which hold back thinking; challenges view as by others.

CARRYING PLANS INTO ACTION: Willing to try things; comes out with a plan; generally makes it work, but failing to do so, makes revisions and tries again; not frustrated or confused by the plan misfires but derives and tries others; parents obtain; "pains through"; when there is a job to be done which calls for use of ingenuity and planning, it can be depended upon for results.

COMMENTS

SEPARATE SCALES FOR RATING STUDENT ON TEN TRAITS OF THINKING-PLANNING
(Refer to Page 8 for directions how to score the page)

	SATISFACTORY	QUESTIONABLE	LOW POTENTIAL	UNPREDICTABLE	GOOD CANDIDATE	EXCELLENT CANDIDATE	OUTSTANDING
1 EXEMPLIFYING DEMOCRATIC VALUES:	Unpredictable	Questionable	Low Potential	Bad Risk	Standing Conditional	Standing Without Distinction	Ability to Work
2 HAVING PURPOSES CLEAR:	Unpredictable	Questionable	Conditional	Conditional	Fair-Average	Fair-Average	Good
3 RECOGNIZING PROBLEMS:	Unpredictable	Questionable	Conditional	Conditional	Fair-Average	Fair-Average	Good
4 USING PEOPLE AND HUMAN RELATIONSHIPS:	Unpredictable	Questionable	Conditional	Conditional	Fair-Average	Fair-Average	Good
5 USING OTHER RESOURCES:	Unpredictable	Questionable	Conditional	Conditional	Fair-Average	Fair-Average	Good
6 EMPLOYING HYPOTHESES:	Unpredictable	Questionable	Conditional	Conditional	Fair-Average	Fair-Average	Good
7 COLLECTING AND ORGANIZING DATA:	Unpredictable	Questionable	Conditional	Conditional	Fair-Average	Fair-Average	Good
8 INTERPRETING DATA:	Unpredictable	Questionable	Conditional	Conditional	Fair-Average	Fair-Average	Good
9 THINKING INDEPENDENTLY:	Unpredictable	Questionable	Conditional	Conditional	Fair-Average	Fair-Average	Good
10 CARRYING PLANS INTO ACTION:	Unpredictable	Questionable	Conditional	Conditional	Fair-Average	Fair-Average	Good
COMMENTS							

reference over either 'thinking' or 'planning' alone. It is capable of identification in terms of what students actually think and do. Its behaviors are definable and observable, and hence, it may be assumed, capable of evaluation."⁴

In the accompanying figure, Pages 8 and 9 of the *Adviser's Report*, which present *Scale C: Thinking-Planning*, are seen in reduced facsimile. The basic technique employed throughout has been to present the definition of a given competency, in all its component aspects, on the left-hand page, opposite the scale-lines on the right-hand page where judgments are to be entered. In constructing the instrument it was recognized that it must, first of all, allow for description of a large range of behavior (individual differences) of the *advisees*, and, moreover, for a large variance in the ability to discriminate on the part of those who will be making the judgments (individual differences of the *advisers*). At the same time the administration must be furnished with an accurate picture of the student in terms of the several competencies.

In developing the instrument, a canvass was made of available rating scales to discover what newer gauging techniques might be adapted. Sheviokov's *Descriptive Trait Profile*⁵ and Champney's *Fels Parent Behavior Rating Scale*⁶ were found significant for this purpose. The former suggested schemes of describing behavior in such a way as to yield several dimensions of variability; the latter suggested devices for allowing raters latitude in the fineness (or crudeness) with which they are able to construe their judgments.

Each trait-scale is to be regarded as of the nature of a continuum rather than as a series of six compartments, and the typography and directions are addressed to the task of getting the rater to consider his marks on the dotted line as an hypothesis rather than as an exact pegging of the student's status. The line is in six stages or intervals, ranging from "Inadequate: Unacceptable" at the lower end to "Excellent Candidate for Junior Standing," at the upper reaches. In

⁴ Backus, Howard P., *Defining and Evaluating Thinking-Planning Competency of Students in the College of Education at the Ohio State University*. Columbus, Ohio: The University, 1943. 371 pp. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. pp. 218-233.

⁵ Sheviokov, George, "Revised Descriptive Trait Profile." Chicago, Illinois: Progressive Education Association, University of Chicago, 1938, 11 pp. (Mimeographed).

⁶ Champney, Horace, "The Measurement of Parent Behavior," *Child Development*, 12, 2 (June 1941).

addition to rating the student by placing an "X" on the scale at the place thought appropriate, the adviser, by the use of parentheses, has opportunity to qualify his rating. His lower parenthesis mark represents the point below which he is reasonably certain the "X" could not have been placed, and his upper parenthesis mark represents the point above which he is reasonably certain the "X" could not have been placed. Thus the adviser estimates and indicates the probable error of his judgment.

A provision for the adviser to indicate the significance of his mark as a clue to the ratee's total behavior, is allowed through use of a small box on the right of each scale. A provision is also made for the adviser to indicate the variability or consistency of the student's behavior in the respective traits through use of another small box at the right of each scale. A five-point definition of variability in which "1" means "ultra-variable behavior" and "5" means "ultra-consistent behavior" is given in the directions on Page 2. A still further provision for flexibility of rating is a space at the bottom of each page marked "Comments" in which the adviser is encouraged to write qualifying remarks. Some "scale-shy" advisers prefer to let this space carry the major part of the record.

The composite scales which appear on the final pages of the booklet provide opportunity for a blanket rating in each of the ten competencies. Provision has also been made for indicating whether or not the adviser deems his rating on a given competency to be a clue to the advisee's total personality. On the reverse side of this sheet is found space for the final statement of recommendation. Here the adviser is asked to indicate any conditions or emphases which will give the Committee on Admission to Junior Standing further insight into the fitness of this student for upper-division status.

A feature which makes for convenience of filing consists in making the last two sheets of the booklet identical, one being marked "Original" and the other "Duplicate." The next-to-the-last sheet is print-perforated and may be torn out of the booklet and filed separately in the Junior Dean's office while the booklet remains available in the adviser's file.

EVALUATING THE "ADVISER'S REPORT"

At the time the *Adviser's Report* was constructed, one of the hypotheses entertained was that the instrument and the definitions contained could be used in such a way as to yield objective and valid

evidence through reliable and practicable methods. The test of this hypothesis was deemed to reside in a satisfactory explanation of the evaluative process and the requirements placed upon such devices as might improve that process, and upon an exposition of the suitability and adaptability of the instrument in the light of these demands. Conventional indices for assessing validity, reliability, objectivity, and practicability offered little help in this task inasmuch as here we are concerned with *primary data* (individual advisers' value-judgments of their own respective individual advisees) which are not comparable. It was recognized that validity in use would be achieved to the extent the advisers are competent, informed, and conscientious; in proportion as the curriculum provides experiences rich in opportunity for the appropriate behaviors; and in proportion as advisers are free to guide the students to worthwhile realization in these experiences. It was postulated that any gain in smoothing out difficulties for the process at any point, contributes to the validity, reliability, and objectivity of the devices employed within that process.

A recent doctoral study⁷ in which 475 *Adviser's Reports*, filled out during the Spring, Summer, and Autumn Quarters of 1942 have been carefully analyzed, throws further light on the usefulness of the instrument. Great variation among advisers in the employment of the Report was discovered. The more prevalent weaknesses found in its use were signs of too hurried reporting, incomplete reports, gross errors in marking, bewilderment in the use of "Consistency" and "Personality" ratings, confessions of insufficient evidence on aspects upon which data were available, lack of time to make complete reports, poorly written reports, lack of time for sufficient interviews, avoidance of use of the parenthesis device, and failure to get the reports in on time. The major changes seen necessary if the device is to function more usefully were revision of the design so that it would fit needs of reporting on first-quarter freshmen, technical changes in the format, and general simplification.

Beard concludes that the *Adviser's Report* makes a contribution to the personnel program of the College of Education:⁸

... It helps the adviser get a better understanding of the potentialities

⁷ Beard, Richard L., *An Analysis of the Adviser's Report Used in the 1942 Survey of Education Program in the College of Education at the Ohio State University*. Columbus, Ohio: The University, 1943. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). 426 pp.

⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 326-327.

and present position of his advisees; it clarifies for the students the knowledge of what competencies they must attain; and it provides a more complete report which the College receives on the student in terms of the standards which the College has set for those who are to be admitted to Junior Standing.

That the *Report* has not yet been fully utilized is suggested by the description of four distinct ways in which it may profitably be employed. (1) Its multiplex character permits its use as a teaching device, the content of which is highly significant to education students in this College. (2) It may also be used as a self-evaluating device. More and more advisers are urging students to appraise their own strengths and weaknesses by using the document. (3) As a method of selection for Junior Standing, the *Report* has been adequately treated. (4) It may also be used as a permanent record, in which, from time to time, advisers record data of many kinds including anecdotal sketches and interview comments.

An analysis of the major problems of evaluation facing the College, as formulated by the faculty⁹ suggests that the reorganized *Adviser's Report* is making some contribution to their amelioration. The four most pressing of these problems are stated to be: (1) arriving at agreement as to more appropriate description of interests, appreciations, values, and skills, considered important in the evaluation program; (2) developing new processes and instruments of appraisal which allow for wide individual differences; (3) developing new techniques for synthesizing data about students into concise reports; and (4) developing newer concepts of validity, reliability, and objectivity.

⁹ Klein, A. J. et al., *op. cit.*, pp. 236-40.

A Study of Freshman Tests Repeated in the Sophomore Year

CLYDE S. KILBY

IN SEPTEMBER, 1941, all entering freshmen at Wheaton College were given the Co-operative General Culture Test and the Co-operative English Test, together with a Library Usage Test constructed at the College. These identical tests were repeated in March, 1943, and the present study covers 162 students who took them at both times. Since the students had no knowledge of the plan, it was assumed that the same form of the tests could be safely used.

For the last few years Wheaton has considered the sophomore testing program as a kind of comprehensive examination intended to aid in determining the fitness of students to enter upon the third and fourth years of college work. The assumption has been that students earning consistently low grades on the sophomore tests might not find it profitable to go ahead with their school work. Other factors, of course, such as grades and general academic promise, have entered into the actual dropping of students at the end of their sophomore year. Tentative studies, however, had indicated that these sophomore tests did not very well predict success in the last two years of college study. In this investigation a tabulation has been made of the exact relationship between the sophomore tests and grade averages in the freshman year—the only averages available at the time the study was

TABLE I
AVERAGE SCORES EARNED BY SOPHOMORES ACCORDING TO
GRADE AVERAGES FOR FRESHMAN YEAR

GRADE AVG.	No.	GENERAL CULTURE							ENGLISH						
		Cur Soc Pro	Hst SS	Lit	Sci	Fn Art	Mth	Tot	Voc	Rd Lev	Rd Spd	Mch of Eng	Eff of Exp	LIB USG	
90-95	17	35	36	33	32	31	36	204	49	27	37	166	65	88	
85-89	44	36	36	33	30	31	27	193	48	27	35	159	65	85	
80-84	46	28	25	22	27	26	28	156	41	19	25	143	57	83	
75-79	39	27	23	21	22	22	19	133	39	19	25	140	52	74	
70-74	13	19	12	17	16	18	12	94	26	11	21	129	48	70	
65-69	1	28	17	30	23	34	27	159	50	13	15	153	51	87	
Avg.		30	28	25	26	26	25	160	42	21	29	148	58	80	

made. Table I indicates a general agreement between freshmen grades and scores¹ on sophomore tests. This is especially noticeable on the General Culture total score, where the agreement is clear cut except for the single student in the 65-69 grade classification. The agreement is partially observable on the separate parts of the General Culture test, and it is also clear on the various parts of the English test and on the Library Usage test. In general, then, it may be stated that there is a positive correlation between test scores and grades earned in the freshman year.

A fact worthy of note is the difference in knowledge, as judged by these tests, between the highest and lowest grade classifications. The 90-95 students have a national rank on the General Culture test of

TABLE II
NATIONAL PERCENTILE RANKS ATTAINED BY WHEATON FRESHMEN
AND BY WHEATON SOPHOMORES

CLASS	GENERAL CULTURE							ENGLISH		
	Cur Soc Pro	Hst SS	Lit	Sci	Fn Art	Mth	Tot	Read Comp	Mch of Exp	Eff of Exp
Freshmen	65	50	51	57	38	48	50	34	34	43
Sophomores	43	43	43	45	48	52	44	60	62	70

75, while the 70-74 group have a national rank of 14. The average score of the 90-95 group on the Vocabulary section of the English test represents a national percentile of 75, whereas the score of the 70-74 group represents a percentile of 18. On the Mechanics of English section the 90-95 group has a national percentile of 89, while the 70-74 group has a national percentile of 30. Similar comparisons apply for all of the other test sections.

The national percentile ranks represented by Wheaton averages are significant in connection with the above illustrations of the extremes. Table II indicates the Wheaton rank for the median score attained on the various tests. The freshman rank, of course, is based on a comparison with other freshmen throughout the United States, while the sophomore rank is likewise comparable with that for other sopho-

¹ Throughout the study raw scores are used. Note also that only 160 cases are used where grade averages are concerned, because of the fact that two students had withdrawn from school for most of the freshman year but were again in residence at the time the sophomore tests were given.

mores.² The exact interpretation of Table II is not easy. Ostensibly these Wheaton students did not hold their own in Current Social Problems, History, and Social Studies, Literature, and Science during the period between their entrance and the end of their sophomore year. They more than held their own in Fine Arts and in Mathematics, and they showed a remarkable improvement on all parts of the English test.

In an effort to determine whether sophomore test scores are directly related to general intelligence, Table III has been prepared.

TABLE III

AVERAGE SCORES EARNED BY SOPHOMORES ACCORDING TO THEIR INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENTS

I.Q.	No.	GENERAL CULTURE							ENGLISH							LIB Usg
		Cur Soc Pro	Hst SS	Lit	Sci	Fn Art	Mth	Tot	Voc	Rd Lev	Rd Spd	Mch of Exp	Eff of Exp			
130-134	1	55	59	48	51	35	44	292	58	58	70	163	72	85		
125-129	9	41	43	36	41	34	42	233	52	34	48	163	66	80		
120-124	20	36	34	34	31	30	33	196	50	30	37	163	67	88		
115-119	35	38	34	28	32	30	30	190	47	26	37	155	63	84		
110-114	41	29	26	25	23	26	23	152	41	20	24	150	57	79		
105-109	29	27	24	22	23	24	21	141	39	17	21	143	53	80		
100-104	13	20	18	17	18	21	12	107	36	14	20	137	51	73		
95-99	10	21	15	14	22	20	19	111	30	12	13	123	45	72		
90-94	3	8	5	9	13	13	6	48	14	6	8	105	36	51		
85-89	1	9	3	4	11	6	3	36	4	0	5	98	26	40		
Avg.		30	28	25	26	26	25	160	42	21	28	148	58	80		

A glance at this table makes it clear, as might reasonably be expected, that a student with high intelligence is likely to make a better score on the sophomore tests than one with lower intelligence. Although the intervals are not equal, there are few exceptions to the diminishing value of each average as one goes down the columns. Four exceptions to this tendency occur on the General Culture test in the 95-99 group, but this group shows the usual diminished average on all parts of the English test and on the Library Usage test.

Judging from the data thus far presented, it is difficult to say whether the grade average or the intelligence quotient is the more closely related to scores on sophomore tests. To have an absolutely

² These percentiles are based on medians for all Wheaton students who took these tests, rather than the more limited number included in this study. The intelligence quotient, however, indicates that the figures used in Table II are applicable to the experimental group.

accurate determinant, a standard correlation was run, with the result that the grade average was found to correlate at .58 while the intelligence quotient correlates at .73. This means that the sophomore tests more accurately measure the general intelligence of the student than they measure his scholastic average.

It would appear, therefore, that these sophomore tests are more nearly of the nature of intelligence tests. The Co-operative Test Service describes them as measuring "level of educational development," "general level of achievement and relative strengths and weaknesses in the various major areas of college instruction," "a more inclusive measure of growth than separate course examinations offer, and . . .

TABLE IV
AVERAGE IMPROVEMENT MADE BY SOPHOMORES ACCORDING TO
GRADE AVERAGES OF THEIR FRESHMAN YEAR

GRADE AVG.	No.	GENERAL CULTURE							ENGLISH					LIB USG
		Cur Soc Pro	Hst SS	Lit	Sci	Fn Art	Mth	Tot	Voc	Rd Lev	Rd Spd	Mch of Exp	Eff of Exp	
90-95	17	3	7	5	6	6	7	31	5	8	12	13	11	15
85-89	44	4	7	7	4	5	4	31	4	9	10	13	10	11
80-84	46	3	4	3	4	4	5	24	6	10	7	20	10	19
75-79	39	2	3	4	2	3	2	24	6	10	8	18	8	18
70-74	13	4	3	5	3	5	3	23	7	7	8	20	10	15
65-69	1	14	5	11	-1	10	-3	36	7	4	4	32	16	19
Avg.		3	5	5	3	5	4	24	5	9	9	17	9	16
Improvement elsewhere*		4	2	5	1	4	1	21	6	2	6	8	3	—

* i.e., improvement reported by the Cooperative Test Service for other colleges.

furnish[ing] a substantial basis for aiding students in making decisions as to later fields of concentration." These tests do not appear to measure achievement in the practicable manner that is necessary if they are to be used as a predicting factor for success in the third and fourth years of college. They seem to be more nearly a measurement of what the ideal liberal arts college should accomplish than a measurement of what it actually does. The questions on the tests assume that the student is on an excursion into learning, whereas he travels more often the bee-line of a single textbook or of a given course.

This fact is made more apparent by Table IV, which shows the improvement made between the beginning of the freshman year and

the end of the sophomore year. The two places of greatest achievement within this period are in Mechanics of Expression and in Library Usage, both of which are specifically taught to every student in the freshman rhetoric course. Compare, for instance, the average increase of 17 points in the Mechanics of Expression with the increase of only 3 points in Current Social Problems. One would judge from this that the sophomore tests would measure achievement accurately provided each student during his first two years took a specific course covering the materials included in these tests. Every student at Wheaton is expected to take at least one course in science during his first two years, but a course in zoology or in chemistry does not assist greatly in answering questions covering the whole field of science. This is equally true in the field of social science, with an additional handicap in the fact that the student often takes the one required course in his junior or senior year. It seems clear, therefore, that the sophomore tests are so indirectly related to college work as organized at Wheaton that they have very limited value as a feasible comprehensive at the close of the sophomore year. This is not to say that the tests are wrong; it may imply that college instruction for freshmen and sophomores is too narrow.

The maximum increase on any section of the General Culture test is five points. This low average increase means, of course, that many students actually made lower scores at the end of their sophomore year than at the beginning of their freshman year. Table V shows the per-

TABLE V
PERCENTAGES OF STUDENTS WHO MADE LOWER SCORES IN
SOPHOMORE YEAR THAN IN FRESHMAN YEAR

GROUP	GENERAL CULTURE							ENGLISH					LIB USG
	Cur Soc Pro	Hst SS	Lit	Sci	Fn Art	Mth	Tot	Voc	Rd Lev	Rd Spd	Mch of Exp	Eff of Exp	
Men	19	22	25	13	15	12	4	13	13	16	10	7	3
Women	40	18	17	27	19	26	11	5	21	14	9	12	6
Average	31	20	21	21	17	20	8	9	18	15	9	10	5

centage of students who made lower scores on the second testing. Whether one regards the sophomore tests as measures of achievement or of general intelligence, these figures are startling. What is the expla-

nation of this "deterioration" in knowledge? If the tests were of the nature of factual course examinations, one could understand the decrease in information after a lapse of time between high school and college or between courses taken in the freshman year and the time of the sophomore tests toward the end of the sophomore year, but the tests actually consist of broad and presumably permanent items of knowledge. A partial explanation may lie in the psychological state of beginning freshmen who like runners gather their strength at the starting line for the best possible race, and who, to continue the figure, are confused or partly exhausted by the end of the sophomore year. The element of guessing also plays some part, but it is difficult to understand how as high as forty per cent of one group should show lower scores after two years of study, and how a total of eight per cent should show a decrease on the General Culture test as a whole. It is even more incomprehensible that the increase in vocabulary should average no more than five points, and that nine per cent of students should show a decrease in vocabulary score. Likewise, while there is a substantial increase in reading level and in reading speed, it is notable that eighteen and fifteen per cent, respectively, of these students show poorer reading ability at the end of the sophomore year than at the beginning of the freshman year.

Low as the average improvement indicated by this study may appear, the Wheaton increase compares well with that of other colleges. The increases shown at the end of Table IV are those reported by the Co-operative Test Service. Sophomores at Wheaton equal or exceed the improvement between freshman and sophomore years on all sections of the General Culture test except Current Social Problems and on all sections of the English test except Vocabulary. The difference is sometimes notably large, especially on the Mechanics of Expression section.

Which students, according to these sophomore tests, show the most improvement during their two years in college? Table IV indicates a fairly marked tendency for students with grades between 85 and 95 to improve on the General Culture test more than those with grades below 85. This tendency, however, is not apparent on the English or Library Usage tests, for there the maximum increase may occur at the top, middle, or bottom of the column. For instance, on Reading Speed students in the 90-95 group attained the greatest increase, while on Mechanics of Expression the maximum increase is in the 80-84

group or below. On the other hand, the increase in Effectiveness of Expression is relatively uniform regardless of the grade average.

When improvement is judged in relation to intelligence (Table VI) the scattering of maxima scores is again apparent. Greatest im-

TABLE VI
AVERAGE IMPROVEMENT MADE BY SOPHOMORES ACCORDING TO
THEIR INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENTS

I.Q.	No.	GENERAL CULTURE							ENGLISH						LIB USG
		Cur Soc Pro	Hst SS	Lit	Sci	Fn Art	Mth	Tot	Voc	Rd Lev	Rd Spd	Mch of Exp	Eff of Exp		
130-134	1	-2	-1	4	7	8	11	27	4	9	18	-3	7	4	
125-129	9	2	4	1	6	2	6	20	3	8	11	8	4	9	
120-124	20	1	6	5	3	2	2	21	4	12	10	13	12	13	
115-119	35	4	7	4	4	5	5	29	4	11	12	15	8	14	
110-114	41	4	6	6	3	5	3	27	5	9	8	18	10	23	
105-109	29	3	5	4	3	5	5	24	6	8	7	19	10	18	
100-104	13	1	3	4	3	4	1	15	9	9	9	20	9	19	
95-99	10	3	3	4	2	7	7	26	8	10	4	31	10	24	
90-94	3	-1	1	0	1	6	1	6	8	5	6	15	12	2	
85-89	1	5	-3	1	9	1	2	15	2	-1	4	20	9	0	
Avg.		3	5	4	3	5	4	24	5	10	9	17	9	16	

provement on the General Culture test takes place in the group having intelligence quotients of 115-119. On individual test the maximum again rests at top, middle, or bottom without any clear cut tendency. There seems a fairly consistent trend for increase in scores on Vocabulary, Mechanics of Expression, and Library Usage to show an inverse ratio to intelligence quotients. For instance, the ten students in the 95-99 group have an average increase of 31 points, and this same group on the Library Usage test shows an increase of 24 points. One must conclude that there is no marked relationship between either grade averages or intelligence quotients and improvement on these tests between the beginning of the freshman year and the end of the sophomore year.

CONCLUSIONS

1. There is a fairly marked correlation between sophomore test scores and freshman grades.
2. The correlation between general intelligence and sophomore test scores is greater than that between these scores and freshman grades.

3. The difference in ability between sophomores, as judged by this study, is great, the national rank on the General Culture test running from 75 to 18.
4. Entering freshmen had higher relative national rank on the General Culture test than the same students attained as sophomores. The situation is sharply reversed on the English test.
5. There is considerable doubt as to the practicability of using these tests as comprehensive examinations at the end of the sophomore year.
6. The low average improvement on all of the General Culture test and on some parts of the English test between the beginning of the freshman year and the end of the sophomore year is significant. Wheaton, however, compares favorably with other institutions in this respect.
7. Improvement on these test scores between the freshman and sophomore years is essentially unrelated either to grade averages or general intelligence.
8. All data in this study must be interpreted in the light of the relatively small number of cases involved.

Problems in Music Instruction in State Universities

ROBERT L. WILLIAMS

ONE WHO is neither a musician nor a music teacher feels a grave hesitancy in presenting a statement regarding music instruction. Two factors carrying considerable weight have resulted in the overcoming of such objection. First, musicians seem quite modest about reporting the result of their investigations and deliberations in professional journals. Second, the information in the following pages was needed by our institution, and being unable to find it elsewhere, we secured it from the official announcements of 43 state universities.

There are, of course, certain objections to any summary based on an analysis of catalogue statements. Perhaps the most serious difficulty is that a large number of bulletins do not answer the questions raised. This is important from the standpoint of the analyst, but is even more serious to the student, his parents, and others vitally interested in the education of specific individuals. The college catalogue is one of the very few catalogues which are arranged for the convenience of the home office rather than the convenience of the customer. On the other hand, the courts have ruled, on many occasions, that the catalogue constitutes a legal contract between the student and the institution. If catalogues could be written for the benefit of students, prospective students, and their parents, many of the problems brought about by a misunderstanding of the printed word could be eliminated.

State universities were selected as a group because (1) our institution is a state university, and (2) there would probably be a more common basis for comparison than would be available if all kinds of higher institutions offering training in music were considered.

The primary purpose of this paper is, therefore, to report agreements and variations in policies and procedures in state universities offering music instruction, with a view toward clarification of issues in music teaching at the college level.

WHAT ARE THE OBJECTIVES OF MUSIC INSTRUCTION?

The general objectives of music instruction as described by the catalogues fall into three categories: (1) to prepare the student for

a career as a professional musician; (2) to prepare the student to teach; (3) to provide cultural background for the student. A few institutions mention research and other scholarly activities as additional objectives. There is, perhaps, more agreement on the statement of objectives than there is on any other factor discussed in the remainder of this paper. The relative values of these objectives can perhaps be partially estimated by learning what the graduates of these institutions have done in the past. Any institution that has not made a check-up of the after school professional life of its graduates of the last five years might well spend some time on this problem.

WHAT ENTRANCE PROFICIENCIES ARE REQUIRED TO BEGIN THE STUDY OF MUSIC AT THE COLLEGE LEVEL?

Only 17 of the 43 state universities indicate that definite proficiency in some field of applied music is required for admission to the degree program in music. Perhaps it is understood that one would not attempt to enter a school of music unless he had some proficiency in music. However, it would seem much easier if a clear statement of the abilities required to do successful work on the freshman level were made. What should be the proper relationship between music instruction in the secondary school and work done on the college level? Should a major or minor sequence in music be required for students desiring admission to the school of music? Why should a complete year's work in high school music be reduced to $\frac{1}{4}$ or $\frac{1}{2}$ of a unit for entrance preparation? Has the secondary school instruction in music developed to such an extent now that a reasonable understanding could exist between the high school and college teachers in this area, as it already exists in other subjects? Is the work of the typical high school music course so arranged so as to form the basis for later learning in this field in college? These and similar questions may be raised to illuminate the problems in this area.

HOW MUCH DOES IT COST TO SECURE AN EDUCATION IN MUSIC?

Instruction in music is expensive both to the institution and its students, although it is difficult for the student, his parents, or the faculty of the institution to ascertain from most catalogues exactly how much it would cost to secure instruction in music with, say, piano as a major, for the freshman year. Why should a student in a university school of music pay the same tuition as students in other units of the university, and, in addition, pay a fee for his instruction in music? In

one university these additional fees for one semester range up to \$255.00, plus the tuition. Would it be possible to charge a tuition in a school of music that would entitle the student to the reasonable demands of his curriculum and make no additional charges for instructional purposes? Should fees for practice room rentals be included in such a tuition fee, or should they be extra charges?

According to the bulletins, tuition in music ranges from \$7.50 per semester to \$320, for students residing within the state, with a median charge of \$48.37 per semester. These figures are obviously spurious, because some universities include all student fees except the applied music fee in the tuition charge, while other institutions charge less tuition and make additional charges for health service privileges, student activities, and other items. It is virtually impossible to analyze the statements of the bulletins and determine, for some institutions, what a student would have to pay in order to have the same privileges that he would have in another institution where he paid only one tuition fee. This is an unfortunate situation, not only for the statistician who wishes to compute averages, but for the student and his parents, who have a right to expect a clear-cut statement regarding their obligations.

Eleven universities have one charge for applied music, ranging from \$25 to \$80, with a median of \$37.50 per semester. One cannot be sure that these fees represent the same amount of instruction. Two institutions charging a flat fee of \$25 for applied music allow a student only one 30-minute lesson per week for this fee, and charge another \$25 for each additional unit of one 30-minute lesson. Thus a student in these universities receiving two hours of instruction weekly would pay \$100 rather than \$25.

Thirty-two institutions report charging applied music fees with a considerable range between the lowest and the highest fee in one school. These charges seemingly are made for a certain number of weekly lessons from the teacher selected at a given stage of competence, rather than for the amount of credit the student may earn. For instance, one institution offers instruction in piano at additional fees ranging from \$30 to \$90. After a student has selected the teacher with whom he wishes to study at the amount he can afford to pay, he is entitled to two 30-minute lessons per week for the semester. Some students receive as little as two semester hours credit for this amount of work and others receive as many as six hours credit. With the exception of instruction in music, most universities do not make charges

in this manner. This system causes some difficulty in integration of the music courses with the rest of the university. The practice also raises interesting questions regarding the teaching of applied music in such a manner. Is a teacher in this type of institution primarily a hearer of lessons or supervisor of practice, or does he actually impart knowledge and skill to the pupil?

Assuming that the fees charged for instruction in piano are representative of extra applied music fees, the *minimum* fee charged in 32 universities ranges from \$18 per semester to \$50, with a median of \$31. When the tuition and the minimum applied music fees for piano are added together, the total ranges from \$30 to \$180, with a median of \$81.25 for residents of the state. This \$81 will pay the tuition and cover a minimum amount of instruction in piano per semester, probably one 30-minute lesson per week.

Students in an institution allowing them to choose their applied music courses and instructors on the basis of cost may make the choice either of teacher or of the semester in which the work is elected entirely on a financial basis, rather than on educational progression toward the proficiency represented by a degree. Financially, this may be expedient for the moment, but it frequently results in the student's having to double up in expenses later, in order to meet the degree requirements. Any device that would enable the student to make normal, orderly progress toward his degree, semester by semester, should be looked upon with favor.

WHAT TEACHING PROCEDURES ARE MOST USABLE IN MUSIC?

Perhaps more than any other college field, music instruction has maintained a close relationship between the teacher and his student. Certain advantages exist in this teacher-apprentice relationship. We are so accustomed to the private lesson instructional procedures in music that class instruction has been said to be impossible. One of the most outstanding pianists of the world said last summer, while teaching a class in piano, that class instruction in piano was a hopeless and impossible task. Nevertheless, 23 state universities offer class instruction in applied music; 13 in piano, 16 in voice, 21 in strings, 16 in wind, 6 in percussion, and one in organ. It is surprising, however that with 23 universities offering class instruction in applied music the professional literature contains so little about class instruction in applied music at the college level. Undoubtedly, opportunity exists in most of these institutions to check the objectives, teaching procedures, and teaching materials used in class instruction with those of private in-

struction. Equal opportunity would be available for other helpful investigations that probably would result in the improvement of both class and private instruction.

The instructional time per week, the time spent in practice, and the total amount of time spent in music instruction seems to bear little, if any, relationship to the amount of credit given for the courses in various institutions of comparable status. Perhaps this does not raise any problem, but those who are not musicians wonder if such questions as the transfer of credit are not complicated by such serious lack of agreement.

Perhaps something should be said about learning procedures. Certainly there is a relationship between the learning procedures of the student and the teaching procedures of the teacher. Many experiences have occurred to individuals representing state universities which have undoubtedly influenced their teaching procedures. Unfortunately, reports of very few of these experiences with a scientific evaluation of them have appeared in print for the guidance of others who may later face the same problems.

Closely related to the teaching-learning procedures are the techniques of measurement to discover objectively how much a student has learned. What serious efforts have been made to apply the knowledge of educational psychology to the learning of music, particularly at the college level? How do we know that three hours' daily practice is the right amount? It would seem that the quality of practice is of more consequence than the quantity. Some 40 years ago, it was discovered that teaching spelling 20 minutes a day for three days a week under certain conditions had better results than 60 minutes daily without the most effective circumstances.

Sightreading and performance on the organ and cornet, at least, have already been subjects of careful research work in the measurement of instruction. Once measuring devices are worked out and placed in operation, tremendous strides will probably be made in teaching procedures. As testing procedures have developed through the years, many discoveries and improvements have been made in other fields. There is no reason to believe that music will be atypical in this regard.

SUMMARY

At the present time little agreement exists among state universities regarding policies and procedures in music instruction. Perhaps this is desirable. On the other hand, the professional schools in medicine,

dentistry, law and other fields seem to have reached eminence only after reasonable agreement existed regarding the objectives to be met and the best procedures to be followed in meeting such objectives. Perhaps it is this lack of agreement that causes college people, outside the school of music, to smile and say courteously that you can't expect the school of music to live up to any orderly plan of action, with reference to common university procedures. There is every reason to believe, however, that instruction in music can be managed as scientifically and carefully as instruction in any other collegiate field. Perhaps this cannot be done at the present time, but it can surely be done after the musicians and teachers of music make careful scientific investigations of the problems in the field, and report these in professional journals for the benefit of others. It is further believed that music now has an excellent opportunity to continue instruction and research related thereto through the war period without undue interference from various army-navy programs, and thus prepare for the expansion of the postwar period.

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The Function of Interest in Vocational Choice

M. IRENE WIGHTWICK

ANALYZING women's vocational interests is a difficult problem. Nevertheless, the college counselor knows there is a definite need for aiding young women to understand better their interests, abilities, personalities, and vocational desires. Although a student's own plans may be nebulous, she usually expects college to prepare her in some way for living and for earning a living. The fulfillment of these expectations requires thoughtful consideration on the part of both the student and the counselor.

A developmental study¹ covering an eight-year period has revealed interesting data on the permanence and predictive value of expressed vocational choice and measured vocational interest; the relationship between vocational interest and job satisfaction; the function of avocational interest in the individual interest pattern; and the similarities and deviations in interest patterns. The subjects were 115 women in a liberal arts college. As bases for individual guidance, data were secured in 1933, when the students were college freshmen, on each girl's expressed vocational choice, reasons for the choice, and sources of aid in making the choice. Each student also completed the Strong Vocational Interest Blank for Women. The developmental study of individual students was made possible by a wealth of material on these students in the college files, supplemented in 1941 by a second administration of the Strong Blank and by personal interviews with each young woman. Data were secured during the interviews on a vocational and an avocational history blank.

The most significant data on the vocational interests of the women studied were secured from the examination of individual interest patterns, perhaps because the developmental interest patterns consider occupational groupings rather than specific occupations. Greater constancy in vocational interests was evident in the patterns than in vocational choice or in the letter grades received on the Strong Blanks. By means of partial case histories, vocational interests could be traced

¹ M. I. Wightwick, *Vocational Interest Patterns*, Teachers College Contributions to Education, New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, in press.

through elementary school, high school, and college and these histories revealed not only the vocational likes and dislikes of the 115 women but also the problems which they faced in choosing and entering upon a career. The selection of data from all available sources and the analysis of these data brought into focus the early influences on vocational choice, the value of college experience in aiding or deflecting that vocational choice, and the function of work experience on the achievement of the vocational goal and resultant job satisfaction. Experience and broadened knowledge also enabled the student to make choices consistent with ability and employment opportunity. This is shown by the fact that by June, 1941, 44 per cent of the group had obtained jobs in line with their vocational choices of 1933, and 77 per cent had obtained jobs consistent with their vocational choices of 1937.

Interest patterns are likewise significant in interpreting the results of interest inventories. Darley's² suggested basis for patterning of the Strong Blank scores was used. The study showed these interest patterns as measured by the Strong Blank are more reliable indices of the predictive value of measured vocational interests than the letter grades. According to the figures secured from the Strong Blank administered to the 115 women in 1933, 77 per cent of the group had been or were in occupations included in their interest patterns, whereas only 58 per cent had been or were occupied in jobs on which they secured a high letter rating. Interest patterns, therefore, offer a broader base for counseling than the expression of vocational choice or the letter grades received on an interest inventory.

The most recurrent phenomenon presented by the interest patterns is that a basic interest, not necessarily vocational, can grow or can be deflected into other channels by circumstances but still remain the basic interest. In many of the cases studied, a vocation was chosen because of a fundamental personality or character trait expressed as an urge to "work where I can express myself"; "work with children"; "work with people"; or "work with books." So, too, the avocational interests are an expression of this basic interest urge. The partial case histories show that, if a student has a strong long-standing interest, she should generally try to incorporate it into her vocational plans; for in many cases, the individuals with such interest showed satisfaction in their chosen work, whereas those engaged in occupations

² J. G. Darley, *Clinical Aspects and Interpretation of the Strong Vocational Interest Blank*, New York: The Psychological Corporation, 1941, p. 17.

unrelated to their interest expressed dissatisfaction. Moreover, the long-standing interest, denied vocational expression, appeared in avocational pursuits. Therefore, the counselor has to study each student as thoroughly as possible in relation to her basic interest, especially in examining the student's choice of a college major and of a vocation.

Accordingly, in 1933, the writer questioned the students concerning the assistance secured prior to college entrance in choosing a college major and probable vocation. All but 23 indicated that they had received some help. Parents were the chief counselors. Other advisers in descending order were high school teachers, alumnae, and friends. Outside influence notwithstanding, many girls realized even in the freshman year that the final decision was theirs, and that continuance in their major and vocational choice would depend to some extent on success in college.

The students were interviewed in the first and second semesters of the freshman year, and again in the sophomore year regarding possible choice of major and vocation. When tabulated, statements by the freshmen revealed that the college major was affected by the vocation which the student hoped to follow, since "to prepare for a

TABLE I
SCHOLASTIC AVERAGE OF 115 COLLEGE WOMEN

OCCUPATION FOLLOWED	NUMBER OF WOMEN WITH GIVEN SCHOLASTIC AVERAGE WHO FOLLOWED THE OCCUPATION AT SOME TIME BETWEEN 1933 AND 1941								
	C-	C	C+	B-	B	B+	A-	A	A+
Teaching	3	9	5	6	8	2	1	1	1
Stenography	7	1	5	13	3				
Clerical work	6		2	4	4				
Social work	4	2		2	1				
"Non-paying work"	2	1	2	1					
Retail sales	1	1		3					
Library work				1	1	1			
Psychological work					2				
Laboratory work				2					
Writing				1					
Art	1								
Dietetics									
Economics									
Total	4	24	14	15	33	19	4	1	1

vocation" was the reason most frequently given for selecting a major. It was assumed from the start that there was no guarantee that the students would persist in the majors they had selected. In fact, 25

students, or 22 per cent, did change before graduation. The reasons for change of major were poor grades in their original choices, new vocational interests, and the discontinuance of the home economics department.

Since poor scholarship was indicated as a reason for change of both major and vocational choice, an examination of the college scholastic averages was made. In Table I, the 4-year-average grades of the 115 women are classified according to the occupations which the students later followed. The range is from C— (70-75) or lower to A+ (95-100). Of the brightest students, represented by those who obtained B+ to A+, 50 per cent went into teaching, as compared with 20 per cent of the C group. The B— to B+ students seemed to be

TABLE II
OCCUPATION FOLLOWED, SCHOLASTIC AVERAGE AND EXPRESSED VOCATIONAL CHOICE IN 1933 OF 42 COLLEGE WOMEN WITH C+ TO C— AVERAGES

Occupation Followed	Number of Women	Scholastic Average	Expressed Vocational Choices in 1933
Teaching	3	C	Teaching, bacteriology, medicine
	9	C+	Teaching (5), medicine (2), writing, designing
Stenography	4	C—	Teaching (3), writing
	7	C	Teaching (2), writing (2), designing, stenography, acting
	1	C+	Stenography
Clerical work	6	C	Medicine (2), social work, teaching, acting, advertising
Social work	4	C	Teaching, social work (2), dietetics
	2	C+	Teaching (2)
Retail sales	1	C	Writing
	1	C+	Social work
"Non-paying work"	2	C	Teaching, nursing
	1	C+	Teaching
Art	1	C	Stenography

the best adjusted group in college, whereas the scholastic extremes tended to present difficulties. Half of the honor students were not vocationally satisfied in 1941. As will be noted in Table II, many of the women who were in the C— to C+ group also changed vocational plans.

Another reason for changes in college majors was the development

of other vocational interests. Obviously, interests can be developed, and, in many cases, were developed during college years. Four students who expected to make teaching their vocation changed their plans before graduation. One student had a fine Slavic language background and was more interested in her people and their problems than she was in teaching, although she fulfilled the requirements for a social studies teacher. Three students completed their practice teaching and then decided that they would not make good teachers. Two declared that they did the practice teaching only because of family pressure, and the third always had an inferiority complex. All received good ratings from supervisory teachers. One of them became a librarian, the second secured a position as statistical clerk, and the third completed a secretarial course after graduation. The students who wanted to become actresses, writers and costume designers in the freshman year changed their vocational plans when they learned more about the requirements of the work and the precarious employment opportunities offered in these fields.

There were many cases where the persistence over a number of years of a basic interest could be found. The review of the case history of Jean is given here as a sample of this.

Jean is an only child. Her mother and father are native born and are high school graduates. Her father is a clerk in a large business concern. Jean has always been interested in anything connected with medicine, and, in high school, she completed several projects in chemistry after school hours. However, her high school record was just average and her instructors felt that she should enter a field allied with medicine. For this reason, she chose teaching of home economics or dietetics.

The results of Jean's psychological examinations in the freshman year were not very promising. She was in the 29th percentile on the American Council Psychological Examination, 1933 edition, and had received an I.Q. of 96 on the Otis S-A Test of Mental Ability. When the home economics department was to be discontinued at the end of her sophomore year, Jean wanted to transfer to another college but because her record was only C, she decided to remain. She majored in science in which she was not very good in college. In her junior year, she took one course in sociology and liked it very much but she still hoped to secure a position as a teacher or a dietitian when she was graduated. Two of her professors and her house mother rated her slightly below average in personality as compared with other

members of the class. On the Strong Blank administered in 1933 and in 1941 she received A for nurse, housewife, office worker, and secretary-stenographer with no B+ ratings.

In July, 1937, she obtained a position as bookkeeper in a small concern near her home. After one year, she resigned to become a demonstrator for a food concern. This she did for a year but since the salary was on a per diem basis, she thought it wiser to secure a permanent position. Through a friend, she was given a job in a social service agency in July, 1939, and she is there at present. She started as a visitor in the family division but is now working as a medical social case worker. She has been attending a graduate school of social work and hopes to receive her M.A. within the year. Her salary is below the median* for the group but she attributes this to the fact that she has not been on the job long and that increases are granted systematically. She is extremely well satisfied with her position and feels that every effort is exerted by her supervisor to make the work congenial and pleasant. She says, "Everyone is interested in his fellow worker, in advancement and lending a helping hand to do a good job." Her chief desire now is to become a successful medical social worker.

Like so many of the students, she was much interested in sports in her childhood. She retained this interest in college and is still an enthusiastic swimmer. In fact, her major hobbies now are sports, dancing and music. Her only community activity is with a church guild whose members spend a certain number of hours each week sewing for the poor. She has little leisure time, however, as she goes to professional school in the evening. Her job gives her greater satisfaction by far than her hobbies. She is not at all disappointed about her change in vocation.

In addition to persistence of a basic interest, Jean is an outstanding example of the possession of an ambition beyond ability to achieve but with a determination to overcome scholastic handicaps. Mediocre scholarship caused her high school teachers to advise Jean to change her plans about becoming a doctor. Unfortunately, the fields of teacher of home economics and dietician had to be abandoned because her scholastic record at college was too low to allow her to transfer to another college. Her innate ability was limited but she had the will to do and worked very hard. The course in sociology again reawakened

* Median salary for the group in June, 1941, was \$1,412.00.

her latent desire to work with people. She had two jobs which did not satisfy her and she was very unhappy and discouraged for two years. It was merely circumstance which started her in social work and set her course toward her chief interest in working with people. Soon she discovered that in medical social work she could combine her interest in people with her first choice of medicine. Again her determination is giving impetus to study in a professional school. It is significant that the Strong score for nurse was A in 1933 and in 1941, but Jean never acceded to the suggestion that she become a nurse. That Jean has achieved a job combining her love of people with her love of medicine is due to a deep vocational interest and a strong determination to reach her goal.

The summary of the data on the group of 115 young women shows that the statement of vocational choice and the measurement of vocational interest on an interest inventory have only a limited use in the study of the permanence and predictive value of vocational interest. Effective counseling requires further information on the factors influencing vocational interest. The four influences which these young women considered to be most important in determining their vocational choices were: advice of elders, suitableness of occupation to ability, long-standing personal interest, and course of study in college. But health, scholastic ability, personality deficiencies, home conditions, and lack of placement opportunities affected the persistence of these vocational choices. A choice of vocation made after due consideration of these personal and environmental elements lends itself to prediction of eventual placement in an appropriate job far more than a choice made before these factors are weighed. These case studies also showed that while the core of interest may remain it may have various vocational and avocational expressions, because vocational interest is not static but always developing and recreating itself to meet new situations and environmental factors.

Accrediting Educational Values of Military Experience

FRANCIS J. BROWN

ALMOST TWO years ago the American Council on Education and the United States Armed Forces Institute recognized that the time was not far distant even then when men would return from military service to educational institutions. When this time came, one of the most serious problems which would face both those in the armed forces and the educational institutions would be the matter of evaluation for credit of experience and training while in military service.

It is not necessary to follow the steps through which present procedures have been developed; it need only be pointed out that they have been taken as a result of continued co-operation of the military and of educational associations. A special committee of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars participated in one of these earlier meetings and has continuously co-operated in the promotion of policies and procedures.* It should further be added that those interested in the formulation of such procedures were faced with two problems:

1. The establishment of adequate instruments of measurement and means of recording experience which would provide the institution with the factual information necessary for appraisal of credit.
2. The avoidance on the one hand of supplying too little information and on the other of giving too much direction.

One basic principle was early established: that the armed forces would supply the factual information but would not indicate the amount of credit which should be given for such training and experience. On the basis of this principle, a clearinghouse was established at the national headquarters of the United States Armed Forces Institute, Madison, Wisconsin. This agency is assembling as

* See—"Sound Educational Credit for Military Experience" published by the American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D.C. "Secondary-School Credit for Educational Experience in Military Service" published by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C., and "A Recommended Program For Granting School and College Credit for Military Experience", published jointly by these associations.

complete information as possible on technical jobs in the armed forces and the training and off-duty courses other than the Army Specialized Training Program and the Navy College Training Program. Forms are now available, and the following definite procedures have been developed:

1. Men and women in the armed forces seeking evaluation of their military experience in terms of academic credit should request, on a special form provided for the purpose, the U. S. Armed Forces Institute to assemble the above described information.
2. Upon his request, the individual may be given examinations to determine subject matter achievement and educational level.
3. The Armed Forces Institute will transmit to the institution designated by the service man or woman the complete docket for such individual including brief descriptions of specialist jobs held by him while in the armed forces, description of courses taken both in training and in off-duty time and the results of any tests administered through the Institute. The school or college is requested to make an evaluation and to report such evaluation to the Institute.
4. The Institute will transmit a copy of the form indicating the amount of credit, together with such other guidance as is provided by the institution and by the staff of the Armed Forces Institute, to the individual in the armed forces making the initial request.

This procedure is now in operation, and institutions receiving communications regarding credit for men in the armed forces are urged to refer the requests to the Armed Forces Institute in order that these procedures may be put into operation for the individual.

A very serious question has arisen on the basis of the information made available to the institutions. There is, apparently, a growing feeling that further guidance is necessary in terms of the amount of credit that might well be given to specific types of technical jobs and training experience. The opinion has been strongly expressed that the very extensiveness of the information provided by the Armed Forces Institute may be a basis for an even wider disparity in the amount of credit allowed than if the World War I basis of blanket credit were used. One institution may go through the material and, finding nothing that specifically parallels college courses, allow little or no credit. Another, impressed by the breadth of experience which is described in the data, may make a very generous allowance on the basis of the same information for which the first institution allowed

little or no credit. The result will defeat the very purpose for which these procedures have been developed and will encourage students to "shop" for credit.

The United States Armed Forces Institute has rightly retained its original principle that it will not suggest credit evaluation. At a recent meeting of the Advisory Committee of the Institute, this problem was referred to the American Council on Education with the request that the Council take such further action as in its judgment seems wise. The Council has called a preliminary meeting and has arranged for a two-day session, December 15 and 16. At that time a special committee appointed by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals will meet with the American Council's Committee on Accreditation, supplemented by representatives of the Regional Accrediting Associations and the American Association of Collegiate Registrars. This committee will be faced with the extremely difficult problem of attempting to give such guidance as the institutions themselves desire and at the same time to avoid taking from the institutions their rightful prerogative of determining the amount of credit to be allocated for particular types of training or experience individualized for each applicant for credit. Whatever the recommendations of the committee, institutions are now faced with the necessity of resisting on the one hand the patriotic urge of overgenerosity, which may in the long run be a detriment to the returning serviceman, and on the other, adherence to existing requirements of evaluation so rigid as to give little or no recognition for military experience. Academic standards should be maintained, but with sufficient flexibility to assist each returning serviceman to readjust to civilian education.

One Form of Acceleration—A Report

WILLIAM S. HOFFMAN

PEARL HARBOR has had many effects on American educational institutions. The accelerated programs of many colleges and universities are known to us all. Pennsylvania, however, had one procedure that merits attention. This was the admission to college, in full freshman standing, of secondary school seniors—at the midpoint of their senior year. This action was authorized by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Dr. Francis B. Haas, who, on December 23, 1942, issued a document including the following statements:

"STUDENTS ENTERING PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS AND OTHER INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION—To the extent to which the Department of Public Instruction is authorized by law to determine the equivalent of four years of secondary school preparation for admission to professional schools and other institutions of higher education, or for admission to examination for licensure or registration in any profession, the equivalent of secondary school graduation will be met by fulfilling the following requirements:

- 1—Successful completion of all but the last half year of a standard secondary school course.
- 2—Recommendation by the responsible school officials, including the faculty, to the professional school or other institution of higher education.
- 3—Acceptance by the professional school or other institution of higher education.
- 4—Successful completion of not less than one year of work in the professional school or other institution of higher education and certification of this fact to the secondary school last attended."

Under these provisions The Pennsylvania State College admitted, to the semester beginning January 7, 1943, a total of sixty-nine freshmen as part of a class numbering 206. This group had all ranked reasonably high in their senior class, had met subject matter entrance requirements and lacked only elective units, and had been recommended for this special consideration by their high school principals.

The group was made up of sixty-two men and seven women. Those ranking in the first fifth of their graduating class numbered thirty-seven; twenty-four were ranked in the second fifth; and eight in the third fifth of the graduating class. Thirty-six men and one woman attended one semester only. Twenty-four men and six women have now completed a full freshman year. Two young men withdrew for military reasons before the completion of one semester. Practically all of those who withdrew at the end of the first semester entered the armed forces although one young woman did withdraw at that time.

Since non-Pennsylvania enrollment at The Pennsylvania State College is limited to 15 per cent of any entering group, only a very few, six in all, came from schools located without the state. Each such student was warned that his home state might not approve of his record, if at some later date he desired to become certified in some professional field. For example, a young man from a Brooklyn, New York, high school, ranking in the first fifth of a class, applied for admission to the Pre-Medical curriculum under the special provisions laid down by Dr. Haas. His high school principal wrote me, upon inquiry, that "the _____ High School will grant a diploma to _____ upon hearing from you that he has satisfactorily completed one year of work at your college." In order to protect the young man, and to let him know exactly where he stood I then wrote to the director of Higher Education, the University of the State of New York (the state office of education), and asked, "Is it not true that . . . if Mr. _____ were to enter this college he would jeopardize his future medical career?" Meaning, of course, his career in the state of New York. The director's reply was, "You are correct in stating that Mr. _____ will jeopardize his future medical career, so far as New York State is concerned, by entering college before completion of high school. The statutes of this state which govern the issuance of qualifying certificates for admission to medical schools and admission to medical licensing examinations require the completion of four years of an approved high school or the equivalent plus a minimum of two years of college, etc."

Very few of the original sixty-two men are still in college although an accurate count has not been made as yet for the current semester. A tabulation based on the number of credits passed by students who ranked in the various fifths of the high school senior class follows:

Rank in high school class (fifths)	Passed all subjects	Failed not more than three credits	Failed more than three credits but less than half of number scheduled	Failed half or more of number scheduled	Withdrew during first semester	Total
1st	29	4	3	1	—	37
2nd	10	4	7	1	2	24
3rd	3	1	1	3	—	8
TOTAL	42	9	11	5	2	69
Women	3	1	3	—	—	7
Men	39	8	8	5	2	62

A distribution of the group on the basis of average grades shows that for the thirty-seven who ranked in the first fifth of their graduating class the median average was 1.25.* Twenty-seven of the thirty-seven made an average of 1.00 or greater, and nine made an average of 0.00 or greater but less than 1.00. Nine made an average of 2.00 or better with the highest average being 2.59. Of the twenty-four who were ranked in the second fifth of their high school class twelve had an average of better than 1.00 and eight had an average greater than 0.00 but less than 1.00. Two had an average below 0.00. Of the eight who ranked in the third fifth of their class three had an average of greater than 1.00; two had an average of greater than 0.00 but less than 1.00; and three had an average of less than 0.00. Of the entire group eleven had an average of greater than 2.00; thirty-one had an average of greater than 1.00 but less than 2.00; and nineteen had an average of greater than 0.00 but less than 1.00; and only six out of the entire group had an average under 0.00.

This record compares favorably with the record made by any freshman class admitted during the past decade during which period all students admitted had the benefit of an additional half year of high school. It would seem that Dr. Haas' recommendation was a wise one, at least for Pennsylvania students, and that students admitted to this college and to many others as a result of his suggestion will have had the benefit of a profitable half year or more in college before being called into one of the armed services. This should be one of the greatest factors in aiding the young man to decide, after Armistice Day for World War Two, that he should continue and complete his college education.

* The grading system at The Pennsylvania State College is as follows: A grade of 3 corresponds to 90 or over; a grade of 2 corresponds to 80-89; a grade of 1 corresponds to 70-79; a grade of 0 corresponds to 60-69; a grade of -1 corresponds to 45-59, and indicates that the student has failed the subject; and a grade of -2 corresponds to less than 45 and is also a failing grade.

Editorial Comment

Dedication

IN AN HOUR such as this it should not be too much to expect that education and its institutions might be productive of a leadership dedicated to the creation of things that may, and will, become eternal, dedicated to the inspiration of youth that may one time, and we pray God will soon, lead mankind into those realms where man will no longer become heroic by the methods of the destroyer but rather where men will be acclaimed heroic because of what they build.

In an hour of destruction we must envision the hour of construction. We must look beyond chaos and find cosmos. We must see that over and beyond the sordidness of our man-made world is another realm where God still stands beckoning man to walk on a higher plane and yield himself to a nobler cause. A suffering world—yes, a dying world—will accept no less than that we here and now dedicate ourselves to the supreme challenge of rebuilding man's faith in those things which are worthy of a faith inspired by the Eternal.

G. W. R.

Promise of Peace at Moscow

November, 1943 brought no cessation in the fighting on the far-flung battlefields of World War II, but an event took place in Moscow which may go down in history as of even greater significance than the Armistice Day in November, 1918, which held the promise of a better world. The representatives of four mighty governments, the major powers of the United Nations, entered into an agreement in which they pledged their countries to fight together in war, to work together in peace, and to unite with all other peace-loving states, both large and small, to maintain international peace and security. And for the liberation of the Italian peoples they included

provisions for freedom of speech, freedom of the press, freedom of worship, and the right of self-government.

These joint declarations of Russia, Great Britain, China and the United States reveal a mutual understanding and unity of purpose among those directing the affairs of the United Nations, and mark the actual beginnings of a practical peace program. Idealism triumphed at Moscow, and enduring peace is brought closer because of the statesmanship and clear vision of men who could surmount profound differences in race, language, opinions, and philosophies of government, and harmonize on a program that holds such promise for all humanity.

The Moscow pact, however, is but the prelude to the promise of peace. All leadership must now be directed to the high purpose of promoting a better understanding among the peoples of all nations. While many fields of activity will share in the responsibility for building a world in which we can live at peace, primarily to the schools throughout the nations will fall the important task of laying the foundation of an informed public opinion, so that men will have a clear understanding that international co-operation is necessary for the preservation of world peace. Ignorance is fertile soil for the growth of the seeds of future wars, and if a third world war is to be averted, educational programs everywhere must place greater emphasis on building international respect and good will. Ideas such as isolation, racial superiority, and the self-sufficiency of any nation must be discarded, and suspicions of neighbor nations must give way to the ideal of human brotherhood. One of the most difficult problems will be the liquidation of the hatreds and bitterness engendered by the war.

Educational institutions face no easy task in the years ahead. They must meet a great challenge for clear thinking and supreme effort. The foundations for peace have been laid in Moscow. At the battle fronts throughout the world, barriers between races and nations are being broken down, and men and women will return to their own countries with a better understanding of each other. The schools must carry on the great work of promoting international good will if the high aspirations for lasting world peace are to become a reality.

A. H. P.

Accrediting of War Experiences

There can be no excuse for blundering again as we did at the close of World War I. The chaotic conditions which prevailed then with respect to the granting of credit indiscriminately—"blanket

"credit" it was called—must not be repeated. It must not be said as was said then that colleges had entered into competition as to the amount of credit that would be allowed. It must not be made possible for students returning to college after an experience in the Armed Forces to claim, or to receive, undesignated academic credits as the result of time serving, distinguished service awards, commissions, or travel—to mention a few of the bases upon which credit was awarded twenty-five years ago. Patriotism, self-sacrifice, and heroism have their own rewards, honored and honorable. Let them not be confused with things academic. No one questions the motives for such credit. They were laudable and patriotic but the motives no longer exist to the same degree, if at all. Other means of evaluating and recognizing these experiences now are at hand.

High ranking officers in our various branches of the Armed Forces have been, and are, as much aware of the evils as those in our profession. They have been among the first to voice their opposition to the practices against which we inveigh. Indeed, one of the very first problems which the Advisory Committee of the United States Armed Forces Institute—a sub-committee of the Joint Army and Navy Committee on Recreation and Welfare—dealt with was that of the proper accrediting of educational experiences of enlisted men in our Armed Forces. This Committee was very conscious of the educational unsoundness of the former practices. They were very well aware that such practices were of doubtful value and did in all too many instances work hardships upon returning service men. To avoid these mistakes, there were initiated many investigations or inquiries, the findings of which led immediately to proposals of a very constructive nature.

In the first place, the very nature of the present war requires specialized training of all our Armed Forces. Fully 65 per cent of the men are required to have technical training in such areas as mathematics, science, and engineering. They are required to know how to speak in various foreign tongues. They are being provided with the kind of formal education that was never dreamed of a quarter of a century ago. We are beginning to see that while destruction of life and property is unfortunately the basic consideration there is also another important aspect of the matter which we can properly think of as constructive and humanely so. All of these considerations suggest the highly significant nature of formal educational experiences now required.

In the second place, these many experiences are measurable. They are capable of evaluation, quantitatively and qualitatively. They are potentially subject to evaluation in terms of specific subject-matter experiences. The United States Armed Forces Institute not only has prepared, and is preparing, many specific courses of study of a self-teaching nature at both the high school and college levels but has also prepared the means for measuring proficiency or academic attainment in all of them. Courses of study and means for measurement of achievement will continually be provided. More than that these measures may be used by colleges and universities desirous of carrying on their own examinations and awarding appropriate credit based thereon. Provisions are also being made for calibrating various kinds of tests to the end that more uniform practices in evaluation and credit granting will be developed.

In the third place, it should be recognized that continuing education in the Armed Forces is not limited to self-teaching experiences. True, it is vitally concerned with "contributing to military effectiveness". Broadly speaking, it is of four main categories, perhaps overlapping: (1) formal-training time, (2) supplementary-training time, (3) formal off-duty time, and (4) informal off-duty time. Each of these is discussed in detail in the recently published bulletin entitled "Sound Educational Credit for Military Experience" published by the American Council on Education. Copies of this may be had for the asking. Furthermore, there have been more recently organized the A-12 and V-12 programs for discovering potential leadership. These units are now operating in full force and will continue to be enlarged as the demands of war require. Professional schools and colleges have been designated to train doctors, nurses, dentists, veterinarians, engineers, A. M. G. personnel, and many other specialized groups. Instruction by regularly employed highly qualified college instructors under contract to the Government is the practice. There can be no doubt as to the high grade of instruction nor as to the soundness of all credit arrangements that may be agreed upon in all of the co-operating institutions.

It cannot be too strongly emphasized that college registrars and university examiners must take the lead in insisting upon having all programs of instruction regularized on a comparable basis with the civilian programs. It is our experience that administrative leadership is a *sine qua non* to the safeguarding of these Service programs. The registrar must be recognized as the key person so far as academic

credit matters are concerned. Unless there is that same adherence to high academic standards that now obtains as regards the civilian program, there can be foreseen many difficulties for many years. We must be informed, we must be alert, we must be adamant. We dare not follow any other but a straight line. Every army or navy course must be organized and syllabi must be prepared. Knowledge as to aims and functions, subject-matter units, numbers of contact hours, and length of course, and a recommended and approved evaluation in terms of credit hours must be developed for each such course after the same manner and the same degree of care as is the usual practice in approving civilian courses.

If the registrar's "headaches" are to be avoided, we had better take counsel with each other on matters of this sort.

G. W. R.

Halos for Registrars!

Instead of the traditional use of an editorial as a vehicle for expressing a conviction, or for attempting to convert other people to a point of view, or for attacking a situation or another's conviction, these few paragraphs are concerned unashamedly and quite immodestly with a bit of self-praise of that ubiquitous personage known as the Registrar.

This individual, be it man or woman, but often thought of as inhuman, is so often censured and so often not recognized for effective service that some self-praise and self-appraisal may well be forgiven. At least in his own heart the Registrar can benefit by even momentary inflation of a feeling of importance.

What manner of person must a university or college registrar be? Why should he, or she, deserve a halo, even if self-selected, perhaps a bit shopworn, and possessed only for the time it takes to read these words?

Above all, the Registrar is patient. He must deal patiently with many different groups of people—students, faculty, parents, other staff members, his assistants, printers and other suppliers of service and equipment. Therefore he must be long-suffering and tolerant. But unlimited patience is not enough. He must have a sense of humor. Without this quality everlasting patience would be impossible. Possessing a sense of humor, he sees things in their true perspective, he can be amused by situations, and he can hold fast to a patient attitude.

This quality of patience must appear in every piece of work he does

or supervises—patience in the usual sense and in the sense of taking great pains that correct information is given and that accurate records are kept. The Registrar must not nod, nor can he permit his assistants to be satisfied with less than as close an approach to perfection as is possible for human beings to achieve.

But this paragon of virtue is also an executive, charged with the task of organizing and supervising a highly important function in collegiate administration. Therefore he must be objective in his attitudes, broad-visioned, clear of mind, widely informed, far-sighted, adaptable, flexible in basic mental attitudes, but at the same time firm and kind in his dealings with individuals. Ingenuity and imagination are additional essential qualities. Moreover as an important executive he must uphold fundamental standards and policies and be a skillful interpreter of them. He is guardian of precious possessions.

Even with all these qualities the Registrar could not act as such unless he, or she, were also equipped mentally with a large mass of detailed professional and technical information. He must know collegiate curricula and individual courses of infinite variety. He must be able to recognize what is similar, what is dissimilar. He must be able to scent the spurious afar off. He knows his own institution inside out and a great deal about other educational institutions. Moreover he must be a student of all trends in education which affect his function.

And so the cataloging of qualities and tasks might go on indefinitely. Suffice it to say at present: Registrar, hold fast to that self-selected, self-adjusted halo. Take it off in privacy from time to time, and polish it on that well-known, shiny underside of that coat sleeve and put the halo back in place. Even though others may be blind to the halo, you will know it is there.

Since the Registrar is more likely to be self-effacing, all too often content with relative obscurity in his own administrative circle, there is no great danger that some self-praise and mutual admiration among professional colleagues will do material damage to the Registrar's professional or personal life. Indeed, it may be just the thing the doctor ordered!

J. A. H.

The 1944 Convention

The Executive Committee of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars held a day-long meeting in Chicago on November

24 to lay the groundwork for the thirty-first national convention of the Association, which will be held in Chicago on April 25, 26, and 27, 1944.

In the last issue of the JOURNAL attention was called to the fact that such a convention was definitely in the interests of the war effort, and President Robinson invited comments on the subject from the membership. He received numerous letters, as did the editor, and without exception they expressed the opinion that the convention should be held.

It is too early, of course, to make a detailed statement of convention plans. A few things, however, can be said. There will be fewer formal presentations than usual, and more opportunity for general questions and free discussion. For its sectional meetings, the convention will divide into only two groups: institutions with Army or Navy Units, and strictly civilian institutions. The very important and troublesome question of credit for educational experience in the armed forces will receive a major share of attention, and it is hoped that a definite statement of policies may grow out of this meeting. Meanwhile Registrars everywhere are urged to look for guidance on this complicated problem to the Armed Forces Institute. (See pp. 238-240.)

You are hearing a great deal about the difficulties of travel under war-time conditions, and with ample reason. It is fair to say, however, that travel is *not* more difficult than in normal times, *for those who make hotel and travel reservations early.*

Convention headquarters will be at the Stevens. You are urged to make your reservations at once, and not to wait until the usual pre-convention announcement is received. Naturally the Stevens cannot guarantee to furnish everybody with accommodations at the minimum rates unless reservations are made well in advance. For your information, the hotel has furnished us with the following schedule of rates:

Single rooms—\$3.50, \$4.00, \$4.50, \$5.00.

Rooms with double bed for two—\$5.00, \$6.00, \$7.00, \$8.00.

Rooms with twin beds for two—\$6.00, \$7.00, \$8.00, \$9.00.

Parlor and bedroom suites—\$12.00 and up.

(All rooms with bath.)

Book Reviews

Progress to Freedom. The Story of American Education. Benedict, Agnes E., New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1942, pp. x + 309.

The far-sighted men who were responsible for laying the foundations for the government of this country knew that there could be no true democracy without an intelligent citizenry. They realized at an early date that education must become a responsibility of the state so that equal educational opportunities would be provided for all. *Progress to Freedom* is the fascinating story of the long and difficult struggle to achieve the democratization of education.

Written in the form of a story around a character called John Jones, who is the typical American boy of his day, this history of American education introduces us first to Jonathan Jones and the earliest beginnings of our schools three hundred years ago. Jonathan's experiences on a typical school day in a colonial school are described in interesting detail. The master's stern methods, the bleakness of the schoolroom, and the general atmosphere of the school, all serve to characterize colonial education with its remoteness from life, its unutterable dullness, and its devastating effect on thought and initiative. Differences in education among the three principal sections of the original colonies are discussed, but most attention is given to the development of schools in Calvinistic New England.

The second part of the book discusses educational developments during the period from about 1750 to 1825. It tells the story of the development of the academy under Franklin's leadership, outlines the educational dreams of the reformers who stimulated and brought about an educational awakening in America, and illustrates the contribution to American education of such outstanding leaders as Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Froebel, Herbart, and others.

The third part called "The Struggle for Realization" discusses the changes which were effected in the schools of the 19th Century, especially after the development of an educational consciousness around 1820, and, the fourth part "Enlightened and Free" brings the reader up to contemporary times. Here are discussed the contributions of the "prophets of a new educational order," Francis W. Parker and John Dewey, and some of their followers.

The final section, "The Challenge of Youth" describes Johnny Jones in the modern public school of 1942, a striking contrast to the first school boy described earlier in the little log school of three hundred years ago.

Most teachers and others working in the field of education will be familiar with much of the material in this book. However, *Progress to Freedom* is a unique presentation of the subject of the development of

American education, which will prove of far greater interest to the average person than the customary text-book histories of education with their pedagogical terms. Undoubtedly this interesting and readable book will bring to many a real appreciation of the progress that American education has made in its struggle for freedom.

A. H. P.

Educational Publicity. Fine, Benjamin, New York: Harper and Brothers, 1943.

In *Educational Publicity*, Benjamin Fine, across whose desk probably flows the world's largest stream of educational publicity, has set out to do two things: provide a working manual for persons undertaking to publicize educational matters, and present a rationale for this activity. In the first of these efforts he has succeeded admirably. In the second he has—in the opinion of the writer—made some good points but clouded others. When it comes to telling a publicity man, or woman, what to do, all Mr. Fine's study and experience on the education desk of the *New York Times* is apparent and makes fruitful reading. When it comes to telling the publicity man why he should do it, psuedo-idealism and unclear reasoning sometimes endanger the effectiveness of the book.

A large proportion of the material presented first appeared in Mr. Fine's doctoral dissertation, *College Publicity in the United States*, at Teachers College, Columbia University. This material has been amplified and made more specific, and new material including a chapter on radio, much needed in the earlier work, has been added.

The book includes a wide variety of source material, from the experience of educational publicity directors and from newspapermen. It assumes almost nothing, since Mr. Fine has found that college publicity often is handled by non-professional workers such as registrars or teachers of English literature. The many phases of the organization of publicity work, as well as of the work itself, are given in detail and documented with plentiful examples and expressions of opinion. Mr. Fine presents information of value in uncovering educational news, writing various types of releases, handling special problems such as campaigns and conferences, and using pictures. He discusses the organization and administration of the publicity office and its relations with the educators and newspapermen between which it is the liaison agency. All this constitutes the subject matter of an excellent handbook for the publicity director.

On the other hand the book contains what the writer regards as some serious flaws. To begin at the bottom of the list, in a book in which Mr. Fine chides educational directors for inaccuracies and technical and mechanical mistakes the science editor of the *New York Herald Tribune*, Mr. John J. O'Neill, is referred to and indexed as John J. O'Brien.

Mr. Fine, second, inveighs against propaganda in the publicity office,

but leaves the reader often uncertain of his meaning, since three meanings—political propaganda, promotional material for the institution, and the evil repute of the word itself—are mingled indistinguishably. It must be admitted of course that educational publicity directors should not involve themselves in politics, and one must grant that the word "propaganda" is a negative word these days, though the point does not seem very important to the theory. But if in addition Mr. Fine means, as he sometimes appears to, that educational publicity men should not favor their respective institutions in their releases, he is missing an important if elementary point. In fairness, he permits this point to be made by one of the newspapermen he quotes; this gentleman states *a priori* that he does not expect a publicity man to sell his institution down the river.

This brings up the third point, Mr. Fine's abhorrence of "censorship" by publicity men. In preparing his doctoral thesis he found, via questionnaire, that most publicity men exercise some censorship in defense of their institutions. (He neglected the factor that to the number who admit practicing censorship should perhaps be added a number of others who did not so declare themselves.) Now it is not my intention to come out whole heartedly in favor of censorship. In an ideal world it would be an unmitigated evil. But every publicity director who has tried being frank at all times has been burned by the unscrupulous or careless newspaperman who, even Mr. Fine admits, exists here and there.

The only answer which seems tenable to the writer is that there is no hard and fast answer. Depending on the nature of the story in hand, the man or men who are covering it, and the history and characteristics of the particular educational institution, a minimum amount of censorship should be made use of. It is well to remember that the newspapers themselves resort to some odd forms of suppression: for some reason it is not general practice to report the cause of deaths resulting from cancer; and again, in the case of a doctor who invented a widely acclaimed surgical treatment for this disease, consisting of radical surgical removal of the testes, the papers avoided description of the treatment with a delicacy more appropriate in a girls' boarding school.

To my mind, however, the most important of Mr. Fine's theories deals with the publicity director as a professional adult educator. As a representative of a publicity office which has from the start made a practice of stressing the important in education and science above (though not entirely neglecting) the trivial story and the gag, the writer fully agrees that a publicity man has a real role in interpreting these important matters to the public, and, with luck, his releases may have some small effect on the education of the public.

But this does not bring the publicity man into the educational profession. He is a gone goose if he begins thinking it does. The publicity man is a promoter of things his institution wants promoted and an interpreter

of the truths it discovers, but he is not primarily an educator. If he begins thinking he is primarily an educator, he begins getting ideas about professional training. He begins to want to set professional standards and perhaps establish a school of public relations.

Into this way of thought Mr. Fine has fallen, and consequently Mr. Fine thinks that such a school should be established, though it have as little beneficial effect upon publicity directors as schools of journalism have had upon newspapermen. Taking the tack of the librarians, who have become so involved in their profession as a profession that they believe librarians should undertake the precarious practice of "guiding" the public in the selection of its reading, Mr. Fine sometimes seems to forget that the most important thing a publicity man can do is to function effectively as a middleman between education and research on the one hand and the press and ultimately the public on the other. But he is still just a middleman. The school of public relations would go the way of all vocational schools, giving technical training which can be acquired more quickly and effectively on the job, when the best preparation a publicity man can have is simply a good education. And the place to get a good education is not in a vocational school but in an educational institution.

If this review has dealt at greater length with the writer's disagreements with Mr. Fine than with the many important points upon which there is full agreement, it is only because the divergences are in the area of theory, which the writer regards as important. What are regarded as Mr. Fine's theoretical errors, however, do not prevent the book from remaining an excellent handbook for the publicity man—one, it might be added, which probably can accomplish more in improving educational publicity than any vocational school which might be established in the field.

DONALD MORRIS
Office of Press Relations
The University of Chicago

Student Folkways and Spending at Indiana University, 1940-1941,
Crawford, Mary C. New York: Columbia University Press, 1943,
pp. 271.

Student Folkways and Spending at Indiana University is a study in consumption. Dr. Crawford has minutely examined the individual student budgets of 1275 students registered at Indiana University and her analysis of these schedules is amazing. The schedules of spending were divided into fourteen categories and the students were classified according to sex, membership in Greek letter organizations, the college class of which they were a member, the school in the University in which they were enrolled, and the type of home community from which they came. With these many classifications one can readily understand what an inexhaustible study could

be accomplished. There is a wealth of material to interest educators in various fields. First of all, college administrators and advisers of men and women will find this analytical survey a useful basis for comparison in studying undergraduate customs and the costs of student life in their own institutions. The material should be equally interesting to specialists, such as economists who will revel in the cost studies; the home economists who will be interested in the food habits of college students and their care and selection of clothing; to members of health departments on certain health standards; or the sociologists who will be interested in the social and economic factors responsible for the variations in spending among different groups on the campus.

It would be impossible in a short review to go into any single comparison of these expenditures of the various groups of students but out of the total picture emerges the median student. There is, of course, a wide range in the total expenditures of the students just as one would expect to find since college students of today come from every economic level of society. The typical Indiana University student, however, spends \$673.06 per year. The three highest ranking items of expenditures in the budget are food, rent and clothing. These items occupy the same positions in the budgets of single men and women studied by the National Resources Committee. At this point the similarity ends and the remaining items vary sharply. One example of wide difference is that 15 per cent of the college student's budget goes for University fees and textbooks while in the budget of single men and women less than one half of one per cent is related to education.

Although this study was based on data collected in 1940-41 which in normal times would be considered "recent," some of the items seem to come from the "long distant past," and certain costs are as obsolete as a long pleasure drive in the country over the week-end. The budgets of college students have not been so upset as those of the general public yet certain drastic changes have taken place. For instance, it is hard to believe that such a short time ago as 1940-41 any person could live on 60 or 70 cents a day for food; that a taxi could be secured for a round trip to a college dance for 50 cents. Equally interesting is the ease with which students could purchase silk hose and myriad sweaters and shoes for various costumes, and the daily consumption of "cokes" on the Indiana University campus.

It is well that this excellent survey was accomplished in 1940-41 which was the last year that could be considered typical of our pre-war days on a college campus. Whether or not college students will put the same importance on certain things in the post-war period no one can definitely say but there will undoubtedly be certain changes in emphasis. However, one can predict an interesting study in a few years after the war when student

spending at Indiana University can be compared with Dr. Crawford's complete study of student spending in 1940-1941.

REBECCA C. TANSIL

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Motivation and Visual Factors, Bender, Imus, Rothney, Kemple, and England, Hanover, N.H.: Dartmouth College Publications, 1942, pp. xix + 369.

The purpose of this study, as its title implies, is to determine the relation of motivation—especially academic motivation—to various visual factors. It is part of a larger study of the class of 1940 of Dartmouth College. "Motivational patterns," or educational histories, have been prepared for twenty members of this class. These twenty are distributed over five different visual categories, representing both corrected and uncorrected visual errors, cases where no correction was needed, and motor anomalies. For each of these twenty, results on an extended battery of tests, careful and extensive visual data, and a plethora of material gathered from hours of interviews have been amassed and carefully analyzed. The authors promise to study similarly the remainder of the original group of 125 for whom like data have been gathered.

What relation then do these authors find between motivation and visual factors? In their own words, "in this group, in which the visual handicaps were of a lesser degree, there was no evidence that the visual condition, whether healthy or defective, played any part in the present motivational pattern of the individual at the time of study." On the other hand, "the way in which a subject copes with his visual defect appears to depend much more on his *modus vivendi* than upon the nature of his visual error." So much for the avowed purpose of the book.

The reason this book is on the "must" list of readings for all those interested in the problems of young men and women is the lucidity of character sketching, the variety of the case material, and the fullness of presentation of the "motivational patterns" of these twenty young men. Here are presented the lives of young men who are highly motivated academically, others without any, or at least with very little such motivation, able ones who work and attain beyond what might be expected, and those with little ability who by sheer determination reach success. The authors say these young men are representative of their class in that their lives are replete with conflict and frustration, conflicts and frustrations which the reviewer believes are found among college men the country over. In delightful prose the authors have delineated the hopes and joys, the fears and disappointments, the worries, disillusionments and successes that make their subjects behave, each in his own particular fashion. The reader will enjoy knowing these twenty young men, and knowing them

will the better know all young men. Those looking for educational case histories will find these among the best.

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Liberal Education Re-examined: Its Role in a Democracy, Theodore M. Greene and Others, New York: Harper and Brothers, 1943, pp. XIV + 134.

This book presents the conclusions of a committee of five appointed by the American Council of Learned Societies to analyze the "Nature of liberal education and of the place of the humanities therein." Although some members are individually responsible for separate chapters, the committee as a whole is in substantial agreement on the basic character, objectives and value of a liberal education.

The report considers our greatest weakness to be a lack of genuine culture as manifested in the "superficiality of many of our standards, the poverty of many of our individual experiences and the inadequacy of our social consciousness." It proposes as the corrective, a liberal education. This liberal education would offer the preparation for the "good life," for responsible citizenship; and provide the necessary basis for, and complement to, technical and professional training. The authors defend an ideal curriculum for a liberal program of study in which "a central role must be assigned to the humanistic disciplines since they illumine human ends." There are, however, moments of reservation when the reader may feel that the authors are not completely divorced from the idea of the disciplinary value of a subject as such.

They would, however, not fashion all institutions into the same mold but would strongly urge the preservation of the distinctive characteristics of an institution. Within the institution they would recommend sharper differentiation by recognizing individual differences and encouraging educational experimentation.

Another feature of the report makes evident the need for effective co-operation not only between the various academic levels of instruction—since no level is really autonomous—but also between departmental and divisional groups.

The report is most timely. It reaches us in a period when the world is torn between a democratic society where the individual is of paramount importance, and the authoritarian state where man exists for the state. A liberal education, as conceived by these authors, would fit an individual for his role in the democratic society.

E.E.D.

In the Journals

"Blueprints or Trial-and-Error in College Wartime Programs?"
Davidson, Carter, *The Educational Record*, Vol. XXIV, No. 3, pp.
279-292, July, 1943.

World War II caught American colleges without a blueprint, which should have been made before December 7, 1941.

"When the great Baltimore Conference met in January 1942, the largest assembly of American higher educational institutions ever gathered, the smoke of Pearl Harbor was still smarting in our eyes, and we were emotionally prepared and anxious to offer the services and facilities of our colleges and universities to the war effort. The halls were filled with oratory about 'total war,' and the air electric with 'all-out effort' but we adjourned without a concrete plan. It was assumed that the Army and Navy knew what they needed in the way of trained personnel, that the federal government had schemes mapped out for putting us all to work, and that the colleges should wait until these orders arrived."

When the Navy V-12 and the Army Specialized Training Programs got under way in July, 1943, we had been at war for nineteen months. "It's true that the Student Army Training Corps of 1918 was slow in developing, also, but can we learn no lessons from our earlier mistakes? It was fourteen months (February 1943) before the first list of approved colleges was released, and in less time than that Hitler had conquered Poland, France, Norway, Denmark, Belgium, and Holland. Such a delay may even yet prove costly in the lack of training which many of our sailors and soldiers might have received in colleges and universities during 1942."

However, acceleration, the E. S. M. W. T., and C. A. A. were under way before that and the courses were functioning in the war effort; but "Surely some lessons of what not to do were learned in that 1918 experience and could have been strongly urged in 1942. The National Youth Administration, too, had been working in the colleges for several years, and had evolved procedures and collected data which could have been utilized. Signs of the coming emergency were visible long before December 7, 1941; the President had declared a state of national emergency, army camps were going up on every hand, airplane factories were busy turning out bombers—so why not a unified plan for utilizing our educational resources, a plan with a chance of adoption?"

The work of the American Council on Education, known to college people everywhere, offers rich promise of help in preparing blueprints for future educational emergencies. The first step . . . "would be the establishment of an over-all planning board; not a struggle for authority

among the American Council on Education, the Office of Education, the War and the Navy Departments, but one which includes all these and more."

This board would start with a "job analysis" of all the training needs, military and civilian, and a file of training facilities in colleges and elsewhere. Such a board could clarify lines of authority and, with the experience of this war as a background could provide a blueprint that would displace the trial-and-error method and the "perhaps unavoidable complexity of the democratic method of doing business."

"Nevertheless, the impression should not be left that there is no blue sky amid the clouds."

"A New View of the World, A Discussion of Liberal Education After the War," Chalmers, Gordon Keith, *Bulletin of the Association of American Colleges*, Vol. XXIX, No. 3, pp. 327-341, Oct. 1943.

The author of this discussion says that war brings to many their finest—and also their worst—hour. But, he asks:

"In the twenties and thirties when liberalism tried and failed—tried at Versailles, Geneva, The Hague, Washington, Paris, Weimar, London and Berlin—what was happening to education?" . . . The psychologists laughed the will out of their textbooks, and schools were founded on the idea that a child may grow up by dealing wholly with desire and satisfaction. . . . The lust for description without judgment was so deep that classicists, historians, sociologists, economists, political scientists, modern and oriental linguists outshouted each other in their claims that never were their pages soiled with reference to value."

"Education for war is education in processes and it is properly called technical training," and this writer thanks heaven that American education has become technical because that is necessary to defeat our enemies, who became technical ten years before we did. The planners of post-war education who say, "for the techniques of war substitute the techniques of peace"—international social planning—are also doing good things, but they are not matters of the very first importance for schools and colleges.

"The fault of such proposals is not only that they imply that such studies (in social and economic planning) are of first importance and sufficient. . . ."

"To improve . . . technical education and to instruct the young about peace plans can hardly be called evil. The danger . . . lies in the probability that being of some worth they will delude us into thinking they really bear upon the terrific educational problem which confronts us. . . ."

"What is needed, educationally, is not an improved technique or a new technique, but a new view of the world . . . what we need educationally applies to the way people privately think and make up their minds. . . ."

We should continue to study, discuss and write peace plans. "But in the hearts and minds of school children and college students what is needed most is a way to look, and understanding which is, philosophically speaking, so new to our century that new teachers must be trained to teach it, old teachers led in their own hearts to a transvaluation of values."

"... No nation in the world can contribute to peace and get rich. . . ."

"Thus for Americans there are three obvious requirements of the peace: self-restraint, discipline and a knowledge of the East. . . ."

"The chief business of post-war education will be to teach young people to know human nature as it is, to be accurate about it, and to think of it with imagination, warmth and courage."

"Can the Small College Survive?" Morley, Felix, *Saturday Evening Post*, pp. 18 ff., October 16, 1943.

When undergraduates were first registered under the Selective Service Act on October 16, 1940, college presidents realized that the normal supply of men students would progressively diminish. It did, and some of our 1746 small colleges found themselves in a struggle for survival.

"One negative conclusion about the future of our colleges is that a good many of them have no future. . . . In 1942, throughout the country, thirty-nine colleges were closed or merged with other institutions, while status for twenty-seven others was recognized by the United States Office of Education—a net decline of only twelve." However, later Federal compilations indicate that about a hundred have failed to open this fall.

A substantial number of small colleges have been called upon to participate in the military service program. These programs are "serving to simplify a curricular architecture which had become florid and decadent during the rococo elaboration of recent years." . . . "They are based on the assumption that the man whom the Army or Navy selects for college training is thereby privileged and will show his appreciation . . . by keeping abreast of his academic work." Failure means a return to his unit. "Such insistence on scholastic performance has always been the rule at some, but by no means all, American Colleges."

From a long-range viewpoint the service programs are democratic. The emphasis has shifted from competition to co-operation among small colleges and there will be improvements through the year-round program and through administrative decentralization and better equipment.

But there is no getting around the fact that the stronger colleges, which are naturally the ones selected for service programs, "are being strengthened and the weak ones further weakened, with the result that . . . many of the latter will succumb." . . . "But the large majority will survive, though chastened and purged of much decoration and smugness which can well be spared."

"Findings From Selected Studies on Early Admission to College," Boardman, Charles W., *The School Review*, Vol. XI, No. 8, pp. 460-470, October, 1943.

Two kinds of accelerated students are discussed in this review of published material on the effects of admitting younger students to college: (1) high school graduates and (2) those who entered after completion of the 11th grade.

Although the amount of material is much greater for group 1 than for group 2, the conclusions for both groups are similar. Speaking of group 1, the writer says:

"So far as scholastic achievement, persistence in college, and scholastic honors are concerned, all these studies show the same trend. Students entering college at seventeen years of age or younger achieve as well as older students of equal ability and scholastic aptitude, and they achieve far better than the average student entering college at normal age or older. Since all the students in these studies were high-school graduates, it is evident that they were also accelerated in high school and that they had received whatever values accrued from being exposed to the instructional activities in Grade XII. Hence the only conclusion that can be drawn from these studies is that students who enter college young are able to achieve successfully."

As to social adjustment:

"The conclusions from these studies of the ability of accelerated college students to adjust themselves to the social life and activities in college seem fairly clear. Apparently very few accelerated students find any difficulty in becoming adjusted to academic work in college, and the small proportion reporting such difficulties perform as well as their young classmates who report no difficulties and as well as, or better than, their older fellows. Likewise, students who are markedly young at college entrance have sufficient social and emotional maturity to be accepted in the social life and activities in college. In general, the proportion of older students who seem to have difficulties in adjustment in college are very similar to those of the younger students. Youth, per se, does not seem to be a handicap to adjustment to the college situation."

Speaking of group 2, those who entered after the 11th grade, ". . . the findings of these studies all have the same trend: skipping Grade XII does not seem to have deprived the students of any essential learnings or experiences necessary for college success, for the accelerated students achieved as well as, or better than, the normal college entrants who were high-school graduates. It seems that such selected students possess adequate mental ability and maturity to achieve successfully in college. Likewise, so far as evidence is available, it seems to indicate that these young students possessed sufficient social and emotional maturity to be accepted by students of normal age, to participate in college activities, and to acquire training and experience as leaders in college activities."

The Colleges and the War Effort

School and College Credit for Military Experience¹

A RECOMMENDED PROGRAM FOR GRANTING SCHOOL AND COLLEGE CREDIT FOR MILITARY EXPERIENCE

Prepared by FRANCIS J. BROWN, Consultant, for the American Council on Education

This set of questions and answers summarizes the complete reports, "Secondary-School Credit for Educational Experience in Military Service," prepared by a National Committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, (1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.) and "Sound Educational Credit for Military Experience," prepared by the American Council on Education (744 Jackson Place, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.). These pamphlets outline recommended procedures in the awarding of credit by secondary schools and colleges respectively to men and women in the Armed Forces.

Free copies of the complete reports and reprints of this summary are available on request to the respective associations named above.

Question 1: Why is the question of credit for military experience important?

ANSWER: Approximately one-third of the men and women in the Armed Forces attended but have not been graduated from high school or secondary school; another one-fourth are high-school graduates but have not attended college; one in ten has attended but not been graduated from college. Under the encouragement of government and the educational institutions, many of these servicemen will wish to continue their education.

Question 2: Can decisions regarding credit for military experience be postponed until the cessation of hostilities?

ANSWER: No. Servicemen are being discharged daily from the Armed Forces as casualties and for other reasons. Some of these are

¹ [EDITOR'S NOTE: These questions and answers are published here at the suggestion of Mr. G. P. Tuttle, who is chairman of the sub-committee of the A.A.C.R. which is dealing with the whole question of credit for military experience, and which is cooperating with the American Council on Education in its efforts to standardize and clarify the practices to be followed. See also the article by Mr. Brown on pp. 238-240 herein.]

now entering educational institutions and are applying for credit. Many still within the Armed Forces are applying for equivalent credit because of academic requirements for Specialist and Officer Candidate schools.

Question 3: What aspects of military experience have potential educational value?

ANSWER: Military experience with potential educational values include:

1. Training programs varying from basic military training and indoctrination to highly technical training offered in Specialist Schools both within the Armed Forces and under military jurisdiction in civilian educational institutions.
2. Work experience in the many tasks involving technical knowledge and skill.
3. Off-duty or "thinking-time" education of a voluntary nature through correspondence courses, class instruction, extensive library service, and many auditory and visual aids.
4. General experience gained through travel, observation, and an understanding of the peoples of the world.

Question 4: What numbers are involved in these educational programs?

ANSWER: All of the millions of men and women in the Armed Forces will have had basic military training and indoctrination; approximately fifty per cent will have attended one or more Specialist Schools; hundreds of thousands are already availing themselves of the off-duty educational programs.

Question 5: Why is it unsound to give blanket credit for military experience?

ANSWER: Blanket credit is unfair to the individual who seems initially to be favored by it. Due to the wide variety of experience and training, the educational value of military experience to the individual will vary accordingly. Credit should be given on the basis of educational values acquired by the individual rather than time spent.

Question 6: Is blanket credit ever justified?

ANSWER: Yes, to a limited extent. The basic military training and indoctrination which all men and women take include sound edu-

tional values. It is recommended that it not exceed eight semester hours on the college level nor more than one semester (four credits or two units) on the secondary-school level and that even such credit be withheld until the serviceman has completed at least his basic training or indoctrination.

Question 7: What alternative procedure is available instead of blanket credit?

ANSWER: The United States Armed Forces Institute will provide to any educational institution on the request of the man or woman in the Armed Forces as complete information as possible regarding his or her educational experience while in Service, including results on appropriate tests.

Question 8: What is the United States Armed Forces Institute?

ANSWER: The Institute, located at Madison 3, Wisconsin, is an official agency of the War and the Navy Departments. It provides correspondence courses, self-teaching textbooks, and other instructional materials for the off-duty time of men and women in the Armed Forces. The War and the Navy Departments have designated the Institute as a central clearing agency to assemble information regarding the individual and to transmit such information, on his request, to the educational institution.

Question 9: How extensive is the information that is thus made available?

ANSWER: For each individual, in so far as possible or applicable, it includes in addition to identification information: last civilian school attended and grade completed; Service schools attended with brief description of courses taken; description of jobs while in Service; brief description of correspondence courses and independent or group study completed; results of special tests.

Question 10: Through what agency have these tests been prepared and what is their nature?

ANSWER: The tests have been prepared by a special Examinations Staff of experts. Three types of tests may be taken by the serviceman and the results made available to the educational institution:

1. End-of-Course Tests, indicating degree of success in completing a course offered through the Institute;

2. Subject or Field Tests measuring the competence of the individual in a subject field such as English;
3. General Educational Development Tests showing the general level of educational attainment of the individual such as "high-school graduation" or "second half sophomore year of college."

Question 11: What are the steps through which this information may be made available to the educational institutions?

ANSWER: The following is the usual procedure that must be followed, presented in sequence:

1. Accreditation procedure is initiated by the serviceman who desires academic credit from a secondary school or college. He is supplied by the Educational Services Officer or directly by the Institute with a *Request for Report of Educational Achievements*. If the serviceman writes to the educational institution regarding credit, he should be asked to use this official form as no information will be assembled except upon his own request.
2. The serviceman has the major responsibility in filling out this form and seeing that it is mailed to the United States Armed Forces Institute at Madison 3, Wisconsin.
3. Upon receipt of this form, and based on the information contained on it, the Institute will assemble such data as indicated in the answers to Questions 9 and 10 and submit such information to the educational institution to which the serviceman has requested it be sent. At the same time, the serviceman will be notified by the Institute that the assembled information has been mailed to the educational institution.
4. After the educational institution has evaluated the data, it transmits to the United States Armed Forces Institute a *Report of Accreditation Action*. This report, blank forms for which are supplied to the educational institution with each serviceman's report, is prepared at the educational institution. It reports the decision regarding the serviceman's application for credit and additional recommendations for his in-service education. This report is prepared in triplicate, one copy for the serviceman, one for the Institute, and one to be retained by the educational institution.
5. When the two copies of the *Report of Accreditation* have been received by the Institute from the educational institution, the

serviceman's copy will be sent to him by the Institute accompanied by an individual letter explaining the report and including additional suggestions from the Institute Staff.

Question 12: Does the Institute recommend the amount of credit that should be given to the serviceman?

ANSWER: No. Its sole function is to supply all available data. Full responsibility for credit evaluation rests with the educational institution.

Question 13: Does the Institute supply official records of credit information from all Specialist schools and other training schools in the Armed Forces?

ANSWER: Yes. The Institute assembles an educational record covering work in specialist schools and other training schools for the serviceman seeking secondary-school or college credit. In addition to educational records which it obtains from various official sources, the Institute supplies such supplementary information as will help secondary-school and college officials to interpret the records. It is to the advantage of the Armed Forces, the serviceman, and the educational institution to use the Institute as a clearing agency for all accreditation information (with the exception noted in the answer to the next question).

Question 14: Will information regarding the trainee's record of courses taken in the Army Specialized Training Program and the Navy College Training Program be procured also through the Institute?

ANSWER: No. The course records of men in these special programs are kept by the educational institution in the same way as those of civilian students. Accordingly, the educational institution in which the trainee is enrolled will furnish a transcript of the trainee's record in the institution and transfer of credit will be effected in the same manner as for civilian students.

Question 15: Can the educational institution obtain copies of the tests prepared by the Institute?

ANSWER: Equivalent forms of subject tests and tests of general educational development can be purchased from the Co-operative Test Service of the American Council on Education, 15 Amsterdam Av-

ence, New York 23, New York. The secondary school or college can use these tests to prepare its own norms for the more effective interpretation of the reports of the Institute. Equivalent forms of End-of-Course Tests are not available.

Question 16: Has the plan for sound educational credit as outlined above been generally accepted by educational authorities?

ANSWER: Yes. It has been officially approved by all of the regional accrediting associations of secondary schools and colleges, by a number of state departments of education, by more than 500 colleges and universities, and by many secondary schools.

Question 17: Does the educational institution have any responsibility for guidance prior to the individual's entering into military service and while he is in Service?

ANSWER: The educational institution has a very definite responsibility to inform the individual both regarding courses which will meet requirements for graduation or continuance of his education and regarding the procedures of accreditation available to the serviceman as outlined in this statement.

Question 18: Where can further information regarding the educational programs of the Armed Forces and accreditation procedures be procured?

ANSWER: Write to the Commandant, United States Armed Forces Institute, Madison 3, Wisconsin.

Question 19: Have the Armed Forces agreed to the procedures described in this statement?

ANSWER: The Armed Forces have agreed to make available through the central clearing agency, United States Armed Forces Institute, Madison 3, Wisconsin, pertinent information for evaluation.

S. 1509—Post-War Educational Opportunities for Service Personnel

The bill now pending in the Senate, to provide educational opportunities to men and women discharged from the Armed Forces, is of immense potential importance to all institutions. For this reason the text of the bill is here given in full:

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES

NOVEMBER 3 (legislative day, October 25), 1943

Mr. THOMAS of Utah introduced the following bill; which was read twice and referred to the Committee on Education and Labor

A BILL

To provide for the education and training of members of the armed forces and the merchant marine after their discharge or conclusion of service, and for other purposes.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That all members of the armed forces of the United States who shall have been honorably discharged or relieved from active duty after September 16, 1940, shall be eligible for selection and training under this Act, provided they shall have been in service for a period of at least six months.

SEC. 2. Persons eligible for training under this Act shall be selected, in accordance with such rules and regulations as the President may prescribe, on the basis of their intelligence, aptitude, skill, interest, prior training, education, and experience. Any person so selected shall be entitled to receive training at any approved educational or training institution in any one of the fields or branches of knowledge for which he shall have been determined to be qualified and in which the number of trained personnel is or is likely to be inadequate under conditions of full utilization of manpower.

SEC. 3. (a) Persons selected under this Act shall be entitled to training at an approved educational or training institution for a period of one year, or for such lesser time as may be required to complete the course of instruction chosen by them.

(b) A further period of instruction not exceeding three additional years may be provided for persons of exceptional ability and skill. The number of persons selected for a further period of instruction shall, as nearly as the conditions of good administration may permit, be apportioned among the several States principally upon the basis of the number of persons supplied the armed forces by each State. The selection of persons for a further period of instruction shall be made, so far as is practicable, by the States in accordance with general standards or regulations promulgated by the President.

SEC. 4. The President shall, by regulation or otherwise, provide for the payment by the United States of customary tuition, laboratory, library, and other similar fees and charges to the educational or training institutions furnishing instruction to persons selected under this Act so long as such persons maintain regular attendance and are in good standing at such institutions: *Provided*, That such payments shall not include charges for

board, lodging, or other living expenses. If the established tuition fees at any publicly supported institution shall be found by the President to be inadequate compensation to such institution for furnishing instruction to persons selected under this Act, he is authorized to provide for the payment of such additional compensation as may be fair and reasonable.

SEC. 5. Every person who has been selected and who attends on a full-time basis an approved educational or training institution in accordance with this Act shall be entitled to receive the sum of \$50 per month for board, lodging, and other living expenses while in attendance and in good standing at such institution. Where necessary or advisable, the President may, however, make other provisions for the board and lodging of any such person, in which event such person shall receive only such additional sum per month as the President determines is necessary for incidental living expenses. A person having a dependent spouse shall be entitled to receive an additional sum of \$25 per month as well as \$10 per month for each dependent child. Persons attending on a part-time basis shall receive such lesser sum, if any, for living allowances as may be fixed by the President. Persons receiving compensation for productive labor performed as part of their training on the job at business establishments shall be deemed part-time students for the purposes of this Act. The President is authorized to extend secured loans not exceeding the sum of \$50 per month to any person selected for a further period of instruction in accordance with the provisions of this Act while in full-time attendance and in good standing at an approved educational institution, such loans to be repayable four years after the completion of training under this Act and to bear interest at the rate of 3 per centum per annum. No person while in attendance at an educational or training institution in accordance with the provisions of this Act shall be considered as unemployed for purposes of determining eligibility for unemployment compensation or allowances.

SEC. 6. Reports shall be made public by the President at such intervals as he deems necessary respecting the need for general education and for trained personnel in the various trades, crafts, and professions, in order that persons eligible for training under this Act may be given proper guidance in the choice of a course of instruction and be furnished such training as will improve their opportunities for useful and gainful employment. The President is authorized to take any other measures which may be necessary to provide educational and vocational guidance to the persons eligible for training under this Act.

SEC. 7. The President from time to time, but not less frequently than once every six months, shall transmit to the Congress a report of operations under this Act. If the Senate or the House of Representatives is not in session, such reports shall be transmitted to the Secretary of the Senate or the Clerk of the House of Representatives, as the case may be.

SEC. 8. The President shall from time to time promulgate such rules and

regulations as may be necessary and proper to carry out the provisions of this Act; and he may exercise any power or authority conferred on him by this Act through such department, agency, or officer as he shall direct, and he may utilize the services of any State official or agency in the execution of this Act.

SEC. 9. The President shall from time to time request the Governor of each State to furnish lists of approved educational or training institutions in such State which are found, in accordance with regulations prescribed by the President, to be qualified to provide training and instruction to persons selected under this Act. Only such educational or training institutions as are included in such lists shall be deemed approved educational or training institutions within the meaning of this Act.

SEC. 10. As used herein, the term "member of the armed forces of the United States" means any member of the Army of the United States, the United States Navy, the United States Marine Corps, and the United States Coast Guard, or any of their respective components; the term "State" shall include the States of the United States, the Territories and possessions, the District of Columbia, and the Philippine Islands; the term "educational or training institution" shall include elementary and secondary schools furnishing education for adults, trade schools, scientific, technical, and vocational training institutions, colleges, professional schools and universities, and shall also include business establishments providing training on the job under the supervision of an approved college or university or any State department of education or State board of vocational education. No business establishment providing training on the job to persons selected for training under this Act shall be approved for training under the provisions of this Act unless such establishment compensates such persons at rates of pay required by applicable State or Federal laws and which are fair and reasonable for any productive labor performed as part of their training and unless such establishment meets all applicable State or Federal statutes and regulations relating to health, safety, and other conditions of labor.

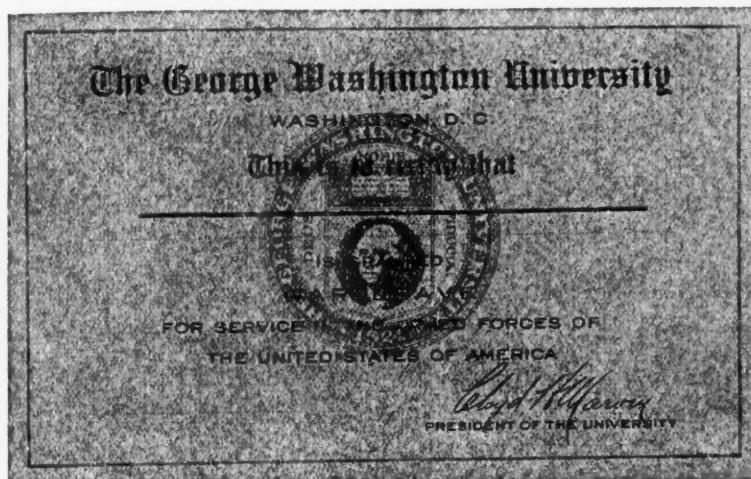
SEC. 11. The benefits of this Act shall be available to persons who have rendered honorable service in the merchant marine of the United States after September 16, 1940, for a period of at least six months. No such person shall be entitled to training under this Act unless he shall have received a certificate from the War Shipping Administration, under rules and regulations promulgated by the President, to the effect that he has rendered honorable service in the merchant marine.

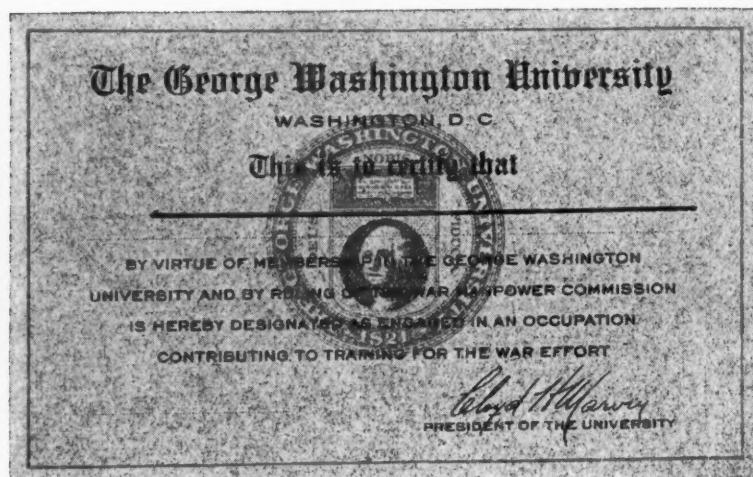
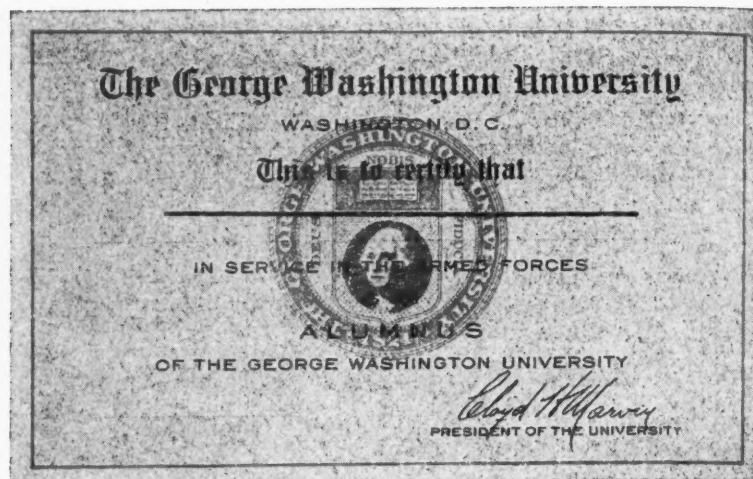
SEC. 12. If any provision of this Act or the application of such provision to any circumstance shall be held invalid, the validity of the remainder of the Act and the applicability of such provision to other circumstances shall not be affected thereby.

SEC. 13. This Act may be cited as "The Servicemen's Education and Training Act of 1943."

In the Office

As noted in the last number of the JOURNAL, Allegheny College issues a certificate to students leaving to enter the armed forces. The George Washington University, Washington, D.C., carries the idea a step further and has adopted three cards, one for students on war leave, one for alumni in war service, and one for members of the staff who are standing by at the university. These cards are reproduced below. The first two carry on the reverse side additional information about the student concerned.





The Question Box

1. *For the past four or five years, this institution has been granting credit for applied music, such as chorus, band, and orchestra, and has now been forced by a State Board regulation to grant at least twelve quarter hours in physical exercise. What is the general policy in granting credit for such courses? In regard to the physical education I find that that question has been definitely answered in the JOURNAL, but nothing was said relative to applied music. If such credit is given, does it displace other requirements or is it in addition to former requirements for graduation?*

There is no reason for changing the credit value in music or in any other subject, for that matter, just because a State Department happens to increase the requirements in Physical Education.

It has been accepted generally that a bachelor's degree should include 120 semester hours or its equivalent, exclusive of Physical Education. The answer to the above question, it seems, would be to increase the total credits for graduation to cover the added demands of the State Board or adjust the credit values in all subjects. There should be no more argument for lowering or eliminating the credit value in applied music than for any other subject that has been accepted for graduation.

ARTHUR H. LARSON, Eastman School of Music

2. *What standing in other institutions is given to students who have passed grade XII examinations in Manitoba, Canada?*

This question is specifically answered in the article by K. P. R. Neville on Canadian Secondary School Certificates, which appeared in the JOURNAL for April, 1938. He says:

"Grade XII certificates admit students to the Normal School for training for a *First Class Teacher's Certificate* or to the University with undergraduate freshman credit as follows: English, 8; Mathematics, 8 or 12; Science (Physics and Chemistry), 8; History, 8; French, 8; German, 8; Latin, 8. These are weighted in semester credit values. The year must not exceed 40 semester credits, the standard weight of one year's work at the University of Manitoba. Possibly for United States institutions where 30 semester hours represents a year's work these figures should be cut 25 per cent in each group, i.e., from 8 to 6 semester credits."

Reported to Us

The Office of War Information has released the following report, under date of November 26, 1943:

This year's enrollments in colleges and other institutions of higher education are more than one-quarter below the 1940 peak, according to a preliminary enrollment survey made by the U. S. Office of Education of the Federal Security Agency. This year's total of about 1,110,500 persons—608,050 men and 502,450 women—represents a decrease of 8 per cent below last year's figures.

The decrease is particularly heavy in teachers colleges and normal schools; their present enrollment comes to only about 40 per cent of the number preparing for a teaching career in 1939-40.

Of the present total, almost one-quarter—384,050 out of 1,110,500 students—have been assigned by the armed forces for specialized training. The non-military enrollment of 726,450, including 229,220 men and 497,250 women, represents a drop of 36.9 per cent from last year. For the men the decrease is 65.4 per cent; for women it is only 4.7 per cent.

Figures for combined military and non-military enrollments show that junior colleges record the heaviest decrease, losing one-third of their students since last year. Teachers colleges and normal schools lost 14.7 per cent, while universities, colleges, and professional schools showed a decline of 4.6 per cent. The combined drop for all schools is 8.2 per cent, representing a loss of 11.6 per cent of the men, and 3.5 per cent of the women who attended last year.

Approximately 66,000 men and 152,000 women entered colleges of the various types this fall, exclusive of military enrollments. Corresponding enrollments for the fall of 1942 were 203,640 men and 149,900 women.

Walter Sylvester Gamertsfelder was inaugurated as President of Ohio University, Athens, Ohio, on November 3. He succeeds Herman G. James.

Frederick Hard, Dean of Newcomb College, Tulane University, will take office in January as President of Scripps College, Claremont, California.

Miss Virginia Harth has succeeded Miss Emily Whitman as Registrar at Monticello College, Alton, Illinois.

Calvert N. Ellis, Ph.D., son of President-Emeritus Charles Calvert Ellis, was inaugurated as President of Juniata College, Huntingdon, Pennsylvania, on Saturday, October 23, 1943. Dr. Robert E. Spear was the main speaker at the Inaugural Ceremony.

Down in Texas much changing about has been done in recent months among registrars. . . . Mrs. Ruby Gray Goodwin, for many years registrar of Lee Junior College at Goose Creek, resigned in the summer of 1942 and Mrs. Clara H. Scott from the faculty was appointed in her place. . . . Mrs. Erin C. Hughes is now registrar at Texas Wesleyan College, Fort Worth, succeeding Paul Crouch. . . . Sister Mary of Mercy has succeeded Sister M. Clement as registrar of Incarnate Word College, San Antonio. . . . O. C. Wilks has been appointed registrar of Temple Junior College, Temple, succeeding Conrad Vernon, who has been made dean of the College. . . . Miss Mary Cowman has succeeded H. T. Tinsley, long-time registrar at Decatur Baptist College. . . . Dr. Z. T. Huff, dean of Howard Payne College, Brownwood, has also been made registrar. . . . Dr. E. H. Hereford is the new registrar of North Texas Agricultural College, Arlington, succeeding Joe B. Preston, popular member of the NTAC staff and former official of the Texas Association of Collegiate Registrars, who died in the summer. Dr. Hereford is former dean of Hockaday Junior College and former college examiner for the State Department of Education of Texas. . . . While Grady St. Clair, registrar and associate dean is on military duty, Mrs. George P. Blevins, Jr., is acting registrar of Corpus Christi Junior College.

Edward F. Sheffield, Registrar and Bursar of Sir George Williams College, Montreal, left on November 1st for active service as a Sub-Lieutenant in the Royal Canadian Naval Volunteer Reserve. During his leave of absence Douglass Burns Clarke, assistant professor of humanities, will serve as Acting Registrar.

Miss Frieda Ann Grieder, formerly Director of Personnel and Registrar at Chicago Teachers College, is now Dean of Women at Winona State Teachers College, Winona, Minnesota.

Philip F. Ashton, formerly of Seattle Pacific College, has succeeded R. W. Hazlett as Dean of Houghton College, New York.

On October 15, 1943, Wells College, Aurora, New York, celebrated the 75th anniversary of its founding.

Our colleague and former president, K. P. R. Neville of the University of Western Ontario, sends in the following news notes from Canada:

Dr. James S. Thomson, after a year as president of the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation, returned to resume his duties as President of the University of Saskatchewan, November 2, 1943.

Queen's University lost three Deans last summer, two by superannuation and one by retirement. John Mathram, Arts, is succeeded by R. D. Earl (acting). A. L. Clarke, Applied Science, (Engineering to you), is succeeded by D. S. Ellis. No successor has been appointed for Dr. F. Etherington, Medicine.

Dr. F. J. H. Campbell, dean of the School of Medicine, University of Western Ontario, resigned during the summer. His successor has not yet been appointed.

Sir Robert Falconer, President Emeritus, University of Toronto, died November 5, aged 76. For 25 years he was the outstanding figure in Canadian education.

In 1942-43 the University of Toronto offered an experimental "Army Course" at the request of the Ministry of National Defense. It proved itself to such an extent that for the session of 1943-44 twelve universities have been asked to undertake "#2 Canadian Army University Course," consisting (mainly) of mathematics, physics, drafting, surveying, and English. The students are all enlisted men under 22 years of age, working for junior commissions in technical branches of the Canadian Army Active.

Anna B. Capellen became Registrar of the University of Idaho's Southern Branch at Pocatello on January 1, 1943.

Miss Evelyn Hunter, former Dean of Girls at Gast High School in Wichita, has been appointed Dean of Women at Mt. Union College, Alliance, Ohio.

J. U. Massey has succeeded L. A. Guthridge as Registrar, Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, Kansas.

Bethel College, North Newton, Kansas, is celebrating its 50th anniversary this year.

Ernest A. Johnson, former professor of Economics and Business administration at Lake Forest College, was elected President of that institution on October 7, 1943. He has been serving as Acting President since the retirement, in January, 1942, of the late President Herbert McComb Moore.

Miss Edna Record has succeeded Miss Ann Poindexter as Registrar of Georgetown College, Kentucky.

Pending the appointment of a President to fill the vacancy caused by the death of Dr. H. J. Pearce, the affairs of Brenau College, Georgia, are being administered by a committee consisting of three trustees and two college

officials, the latter being Miss E. F. Pearce, Dean, and Miss Ella De Winfield, Registrar.

We learn that Miss Mary A. Robertson (dubbed "Honeychile" by the colleague who sends us this item) is on leave from the University of Alabama and has joined the WAVES. Her present address is:

Miss Mary Robertson, 5747840
A.S.—V 9-U.S.N.R.
School for Midshipmen (WR)
Northampton, Massachusetts.

The University of Louisville has just announced the appointment as President of Einar William Jacobsen.

While the question of credit for military experience is still very far from settled, and will be a major subject of discussion at next April's convention, as noted elsewhere, Mr. Robert L. Williams of the University of Michigan is beginning already to compile information as to practices now being put into effect. He writes as follows:

"I am particularly interested in receiving from registrars all over the country copies of official policies which have been adopted by their institutions regarding the adjustment of credit earned by former students while in the Armed Forces. I include in this statement not only courses taken through the Armed Forces Institute Program, but Army and Navy college training programs which are now being taught in recognized colleges and universities of the country. (What are the colleges doing with reference to their usual residence requirement? Suppose a student was in College X for three years and then under the Navy Training Program was transferred to another recognized institution—and while there earned credit in courses that would complete his degree requirement. Will the parent institution waive the usual residence requirement of the senior year being spent in residence?)"

Registrars with any information on this matter are urged to communicate with Mr. Williams.

REGIONAL ASSOCIATIONS

The annual meeting of the Colorado-Wyoming Association of Registrars was held at Denver, Colorado on November 12, 1943, with Mesa College, Grand Junction, Colorado, as host. The meeting had been scheduled for Grand Junction, but travel conditions necessitated a more central place of meeting.

The following papers were presented at the morning session: "Influence of Accelerated Programs and of Armed Forces Experience on Colleges" by Dr. William Black, President, Pueblo Junior College; "Rehabilitation Programs for Ex-Service Men" by Dean Jesse R. Morgan, Colorado School of Mines; "New Developments in the Program for Improvement of College Student Records and Transcripts" by Registrar R. M. Carson, Colorado State College of Education.

The afternoon session was devoted to discussion of such topics as: Consideration of Post War Curriculum; Program of Armed Services Institute; Credit Allowances for Military Service; and a brief review was given of the American Council on Education Pamphlet, "Sound Educational Credit for Military Experience."

The following officers were elected for the coming year: president, Miss Lucy E. Spicer, Western State College; vice-president, Mr. F. C. Onstott, School of Commerce, University of Denver; secretary-treasurer, Dorothy Gelhaus, Adams State Teachers College.

The Association of Ohio College Registrars met in Columbus on November 26 and 27, 1943. Fifty-six members, representing 30 Ohio institutions, were registered. The meetings opened with a general session on Friday morning, followed by a luncheon. The afternoon session was given over to three open forums, one each for Army and Navy college programs, and one for strictly civilian schools. The banquet Friday evening at the Deshler-Wallick hotel was addressed by Dr. Felix Held, Secretary of the College of Commerce, Ohio State University. Saturday morning's general session was held on the campus. It included a report by the chairman of each of the preceding day's panels, and a business meeting, after which Dr. Samuel Renshaw, of the Department of Psychology at Ohio State, gave a fascinating lecture-demonstration on "Development of the Program of Recognition Training for the Navy and the Army." The conference closed with a luncheon at the Faculty Club. Officers elected for the ensuing year are President, Edith D. Cockins, Ohio State University; Vice-President, Willard Nudd, Case School of Applied Science; Secretary-Treasurer, Edith Stanley, Oberlin College.

Directory of Regional Associations

(Changes should be reported promptly to the Regional Associations Editor)

ALABAMA COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS ASSOCIATION

President, J. F. Glazner, Jacksonville State Teachers College, Jacksonville
Secretary-Treasurer, Eva Wilson, University of Alabama, University

ARKANSAS ASSOCIATION OF REGISTRARS

President, G. Y. Short, Arkansas State Teachers College, Conway
Secretary, Mrs. Clarine Longstreth, Little Rock Junior College, Little Rock

CHICAGO CONFERENCE OF COLLEGE REGISTRARS

President, Alice J. Griffin, Wright Junior College, Chicago
Secretary-Treasurer, Velma Davis, University of Illinois, Medical School, Chicago

COLORADO-WYOMING ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGE REGISTRARS

President, Lucy E. Spicer, Western State College, Gunnison, Colorado.
Secretary-Treasurer, Dorothy Gelhaus, Adams State Teachers College, Alamosa,
Colorado

ILLINOIS ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, Valerie C. Wickhem, University of Chicago
Secretary-Treasurer, Mrs. Gretchen Happ, The Principia

INDIANA ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, Veneta J. Kunter, DePauw University, Greencastle
Secretary-Treasurer, Stanley M. Norris, Arthur Jordan Conservatory of Music,
Butler University, Indianapolis

KANSAS ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, Stanlee V. Dalton, Fort Hays Kansas State College, Hays
Secretary, Sister Ann Elizabeth, The Saint Mary College, Xavier

KENTUCKY ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGE REGISTRARS

President, Howard S. Higdon, Campbellsville College, Campbellsville
Secretary-Treasurer, Jessie Wilson, University of Kentucky, Lexington

LOUISIANA ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, Carmel V. Discon, Loyola University, New Orleans

MICHIGAN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, Robert L. Williams, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor
Secretary, R. S. Linton, Michigan State College, East Lansing

MIDDLE STATES ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, William R. Howell, Washington College, Chestertown, Maryland
Secretary-Treasurer, J. M. Daniels, Carnegie Inst. of Technology, Pittsburgh,
Pennsylvania

MISSISSIPPI ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGE REGISTRARS

President, Mary Pulley, Mississippi Southern College, Hattiesburg
Secretary, Annie McBride, Belhaven College, Jackson

MISSOURI ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, L. A. Eubank, Northeast Missouri State Teachers College, Kirksville
Secretary, Orpha Stockard, Cottery College, Nevada

NEBRASKA BRANCH AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, G. W. Rosenlof, University of Nebraska, Lincoln

NORTH CAROLINA ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, Mrs. Margaret Kilby, Louisburg College, Louisburg
Secretary-Treasurer, Mrs. W. B. Ramsay, Mitchell College, Statesville

NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGE REGISTRARS

President, S. C. Larson, Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa
Secretary-Treasurer, A. H. Parrott, North Dakota Agricultural College, Fargo, N.D.

OHIO ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGE REGISTRARS

President, Edith Cockins, Ohio State University, Columbus
Secretary-Treasurer, Edith Stanley, Oberlin College, Oberlin

OKLAHOMA ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGiate REGISTRARS

President, J. E. Fellows, University of Tulsa, Tulsa

Secretary, Gladys Meanor, Northern Oklahoma Junior College, Tonkawa

PACIFIC COAST ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGiate REGISTRARS

President, Douglas V. McClane, Whitman College, Walla Walla, Washington
Secretary, Doris Dozier, Mills College, Oakland, California

SOUTH CAROLINA ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGiate REGISTRARS

President, Robert C. Brownlee, Erskine College, Due West

Secretary, Dora Harrington, Winthrop College, Rock Hill

SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGE REGISTRARS

President, John G. Kelly, Winthrop College, Rock Hill, South Carolina

Secretary, Mary A. Robertson, University of Alabama, Tuscaloosa, Alabama

TENNESSEE ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGiate REGISTRARS

President, Hugh T. Ramsey, Lincoln Memorial University, Harrogate

TEXAS ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGiate REGISTRARS

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